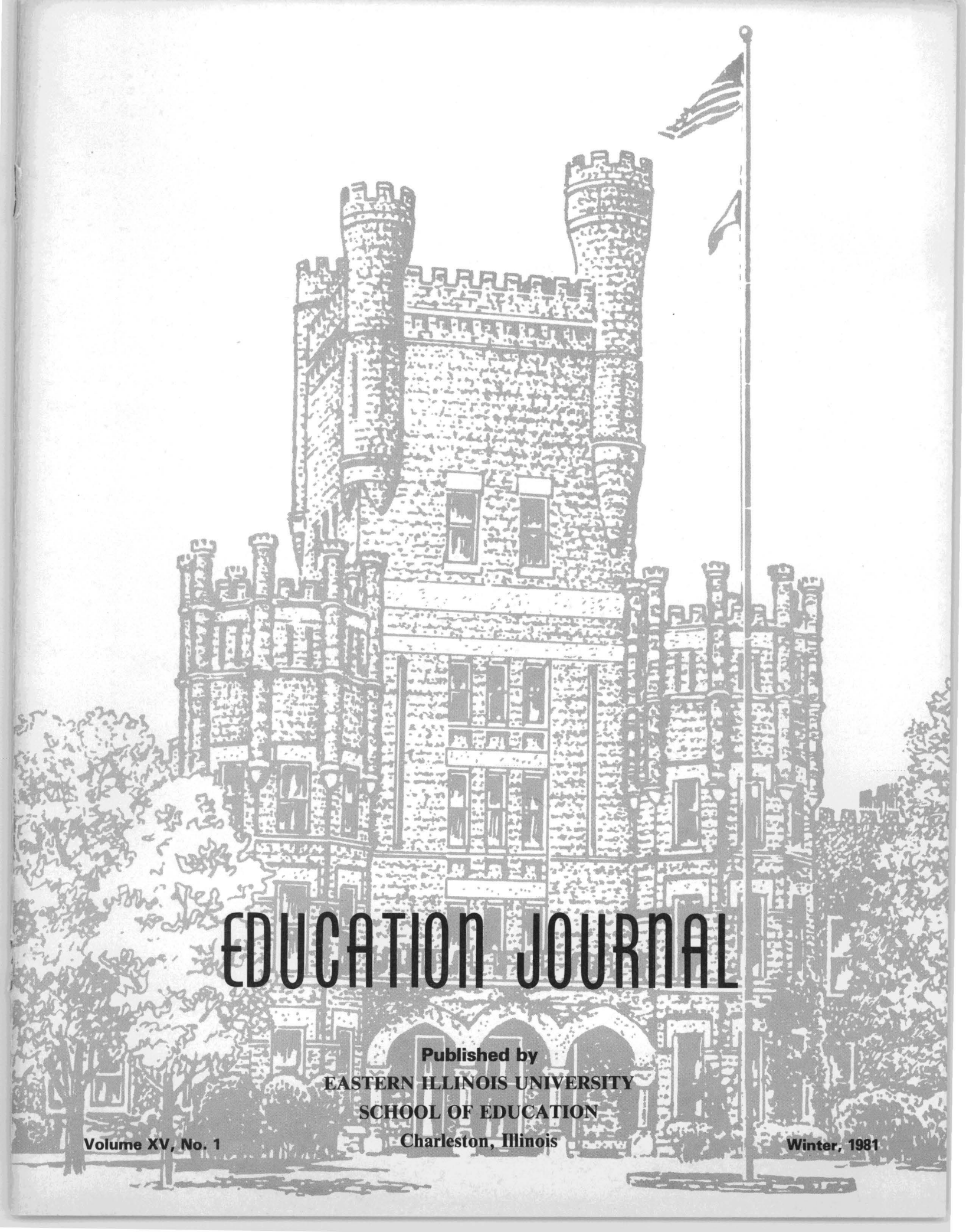
Winter 1981

Volume 15 Number 1

EIU College of Education



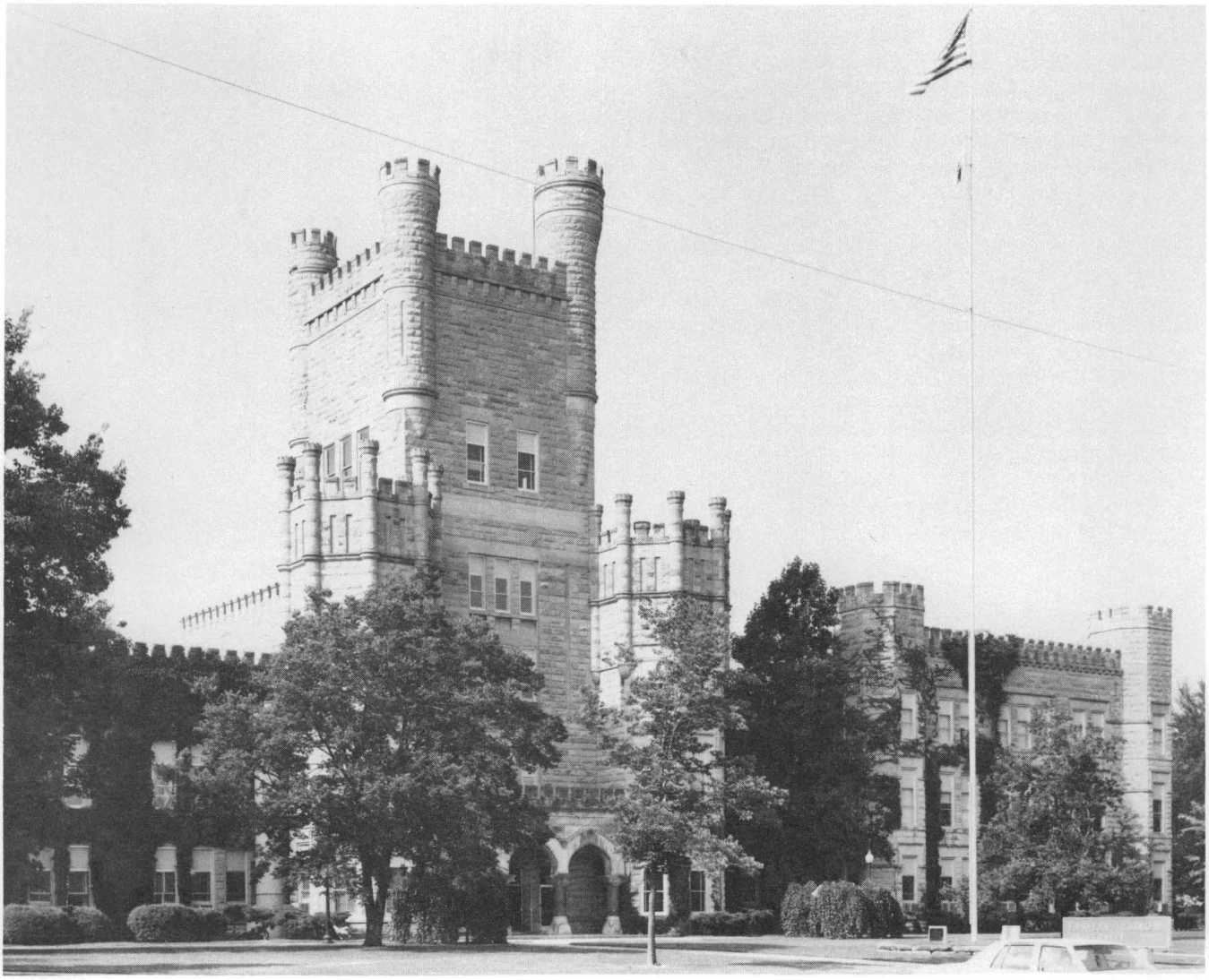
EDUCATION JOURNAL

Published by
EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Charleston, Illinois

Volume XV, No. 1

Winter, 1981

EASTERN EDUCATION JOURNAL



Old Main

The Old Main Administration Building stands majestically on Lincoln Avenue at the entrance to the Eastern Illinois University campus. Constructed in 1898 as the original and only building housing the newly authorized Eastern Illinois State Normal School, the building clearly shows the influence of German-born, then-governor, John P. Altgeld. This "Castle on the Rhine," or German Gothic style is typical of the public buildings designed while Altgeld was Governor of Illinois, 1893-1897. In 1898, the Board of Trustees wrote to Governor Altgeld, "We believe we have a first class building in every respect; that no brick, stone or piece of building material of any kind unfit to be in the building can be found therein, and that all work has been done in a first class manner." Other than some minor remodeling projects and necessary modernizing renovations, the original building still stands as a monument to the trustees' faith, and serves as the symbol, the head, and the hub of activity at Eastern Illinois University.

VOLUME 15 **NUMBER 1**

EASTERN EDUCATION JOURNAL

The Eastern Education Journal seeks to present competent discussions of contemporary issues in education and toward this end generally publishes articles written by persons active in the profession of education who have developed degrees of expertise through preparation and experience in the field.

We are currently soliciting articles. All varieties of manuscript will be accepted. Research summaries, program descriptions, and book reviews are considered worthy; the Editorial Board, however, will give priority to original points of view and strong personal position papers. Controversy is welcome, and the editors hope to present a balance of pro and con articles on current issues in education. Manuscripts must be submitted to the Editor, Ronald Leathers, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University.

1. Manuscript size should be limited to 3000 words or less. It should be typed, double spaced, on 8½ by 11 paper. Footnotes should be kept to a minimum, and all references must appear at the end of the article in format according to the APA publication manual.

2. The original and three legible copies are required; articles accepted for publication are read and approved by a minimum of three members of the Editorial Board.

3. Each manuscript submitted should be accompanied by an identification cover sheet containing the following current information about each author:

a. Name and official title

b. Institutional affiliation

c. Address, including zip code

d. A statement whether or not the article has been previously published or is under consideration by another publication.

PUBLISHED BY
THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

FROM THE EDITOR . . .

In This Issue

Competency testing, special education placement, student literacy, educational leadership, goals and functions of the public schools, and enrollment problems of a typical midwestern state university are topics addressed by our selection of articles in this issue of the *Journal*. As we often say, "The mission of our journal is to encourage educators to speak up." Research, reports, opinions, and debatable ideas are all encouraged, and this issue is a unique array of all of those avenues as our authors inform, question, and challenge our thinking about the current professional scene.

In our last issue, the lead article, written by Ron Abrell of Western Illinois University, put forth an impressive argument for the author's contention that the study of the humanities is the key to success in the preparation of educational leaders for the future. Readers will recall our prediction at that time that the article would surely provoke some reactions from the field, which we would be willing to consider for publication in future issues.

The lead article in this issue is one such reaction. *Jacqueline Jacobs*, Eastern Illinois University, and *Emil R. Spees*, Southern Illinois Univeristy, in their article entitled, *"Educational Leaders or Administrators: Which Do We Want?"*, do not dispute Abrell's basic premise, but they gently argue with him as they propose the need for a clear distinction between two directing roles — the educational leader as opposed to the educational program administrator.

The issue of enrollments in higher education, prevailing throughout the late 1970's and promising to continue through the 1980's, has been viewed as a mixed blessing at Eastern Illinois University, for unlike many other universities during the past few years, Eastern maintained a slight but steady growth pattern, and, in fact, realized its highest enrollment ever (10,016) in 1980; this was despite a series of efforts in the Spring of the year to reduce enrollment. Obviously, we view this fact with pride and consternation. In our second article, *"Eastern and the Decade of the Eighties,"* Dr. Glenn Williams, Vice President for Student Affairs and leader of Eastern's staff of "super recruiters," reviews higher education enrollment trends and projections for the 1980's. While his recommendations are specifically aimed at Eastern, the implications of his thorough analysis are meaningful to all colleges and universities.

John D. Finnegan, West Liberty State College, West Virginia, advocates, from the point-of-view of an English professor, the restructuring of teaching schedules for composition teachers in the secondary schools to facilitate the learning of analytical/critical thinking and writing. His article, *"Literacy, Analytical Writing, and Restructuring Teaching Schedules for Secondary Language Arts,"* discusses the causal bond between living independently and creatively and the habit of thinking and writing analytically and critically and offers as a solution to the growing literacy problem intensified composition programs which would necessitate the reorganization of instructional schedules. Since Finnegan's proposal would affect teacher education programs and instructional schedules as well as English curricula, it should interest administrators and teachers in secondary and higher education.

Recent legislation mandating least restrictive environment for mentally handicapped students has often led to difficult decisions by educational committee decision makers on appropriate placement for retarded pupils. As more weight is given to the effects of placement on the child's affective development, educational decision makers have often turned to a field of contradictory or non-conclusive literature. *Richard L. Luftig*, Assistant Professor of Special Education at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, categorizes results of various studies on the effects of educational placement on measured self-concept functioning of retarded pupils. His article, *"Educational Placement of the Retarded and Self-Concept Functioning: Implications for Education Decision Makers,"* suggests that IQ, reading ability, and the ability to make social comparisons may be valuable predictors of self-concept functioning of retarded students in various educational settings, and recommends criteria for placement decisions regarding these pupils.

In the fifth article, *"The Status of Competency Testing in America," Wilbert Herrmann, Robert Gerardi,* and *Gary Benedict*, administrators for the Mukwonago Area Schools, Mukwonago, Wisconsin review the definitions, interpretations, and implementations of the competency testing movement and, in so doing, make an indirect comment on what appears to be a widespread inconsistency and confusion regarding the movement.

In a brief research report entitled, *"Increasing the Questioning Ability of Student Teachers," Stuart Vincent*, Associate Professor in Student Teaching, Eastern Illinois University, offers some evidence that the questioning ability of student teachers can be improved by direct instruction and practice in the use of a taxonomy of questions.

The VIEWPOINT articles in this issue were written by *James A. Wenstrom*, Assistant Superintendent of Schools for the Gridley, Illinois Community Unit School District and *Joe L. Kincheloe*, Chairman of the Education Department at Sinte Gleska College on the Rosebud Reservation, South Dakota. Wenstrom believes that in the face of dwindling resources, it is more important than ever for public schools to evaluate and define their roles and capabilities. His article, *"The Need for Public Schools to Define their Roles,"* addresses that point. Kincheloe believes that the alienation of modern man is a forgotten topic in contemporary schools, and his article, *"Teaching a Philosophy of Alienation in the Schools,"* explores the reasons behind the absence of the concept of alienation from the curriculum and the dangers resulting from its neglect.

CONTENTS

The Center for Educational Services . . .
THE CFES REPORT

NOTE: This column is intended to keep Eastern Illinois area educators apprised of special events, projects, workshops, and conferences of interest to them.

Eastern's branch of ACEI (Association of Childhood Education International) sponsored a Children's Film Festival in the Buzzard Education Building in October. Approximately 100 elementary school children from the Charleston school district were treated to an afternoon program of classic children's films interspersed with the antics of a group of colorful and entertaining clowns, who are, in real life, very talented EIU elementary education majors.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

The 17th Annual Reading Conference of the East Central-Eastern Illinois Reading Council was held on October 31, 1981, in the Martin Luther King, Jr. University Union. Over four hundred educators met to share ideas about teaching reading and to hear Sam Scroggins speak on "Reading — A Second Chance." This conference was co-hosted by the Department of Elementary and Junior High Education and the East Central-Eastern Illinois Reading Council, an affiliate of the International Reading Association and the Illinois Reading Council. Dr. Kathlene Shank and Dr. Richard White, faculty members in the EIU School of Education, were co-chairmen of the conference planning committee. Dr. Stanley Rives, EIU Vice President for Academic Affairs, and Dr. Frank Lutz, Dean of the School of Education, participated. Dr. Dale Downs and Dr. Gene Blair were officials in attendance, representing the Illinois Reading Council and the International Reading Association, respectively. The 18th Annual Conference will be held October 30, 1982, with Pat Koppman as the featured speaker.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

The Library/Media staff of the EIU Department of School Service Personnel hosted a Mini-Conference on October 16, 1981, in the University Union. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss "Media Services in the Public Schools." On the program, administrators and library/media specialists in the Eastern Illinois service region addressed the subject of the conference from their perspectives. A staff member of the Illinois Board of Education was on hand, also, to present and clarify certification standards in the media services field. The EIU library/media staff members are engaged in a broad search for input from practitioners regarding a revision of the media services program which is currently being developed.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Many 4-6 grade students in the Mattoon, Illinois school district are participating in a diagnostic tutorial reading program. Created and developed during this past Fall Semester, the program is a cooperative effort between Bennett Elementary School in Mattoon and the EIU Department of Special Education. Under the supervision of Professor Jacque Jacobs and Laura Bundy, Graduate Assistant, sixteen senior and graduate level students at EIU are working with thirty-two Bennett students to improve their reading skills; the children receive tutorial help three times each week for an hour a day.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

A Toy Lending Library is a newly added facility at EIU. Sponsored by the Student Council for Exceptional

Children (SCEC) Chapter 0771, the library is open to area residents who can check out toys for their children. The library is particularly able to provide materials for children with various exceptionalities including: learning disabilities, behavior disorders, mental handicaps, slow learners, orthopedic handicaps, hearing and visual impairments, and gifted. The SCEC is working to develop a mobile library to service people in rural areas, particularly those children with special needs. The library is located in the Buzzard Education Building Room 113 and is open 3-4 p.m., Monday through Thursday, or by appointment.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

On November 19, 1981, Drs. Kenneth Sutton and Robert Barger of the EIU Secondary Education and Foundations Department participated in an Educational Forum sponsored by the Center for Educational Services and organized by Jacque Jacobs of the Department of Special Education. Along with invited presenters, Dr. Emil Spees and Mr. Jerry Joplin of Southern Illinois University-Carbondale, Drs. Sutton and Barger addressed three educational issues with each panel member taking a different philosophical position. Over 300 faculty and students were in attendance at the Forum.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Thomas McIntyre, EIU Special Education Department, has been awarded a U.S. Department of Education grant in the amount of $5,475 to fund research entitled, "An Investigation of the Relationships Among Burnout, Locus of Control and Personal/Professional Factors in Special Education Teachers." McIntyre's paper of the same title was presented at the National Conference on Burnout in Philadelphia on November 2-3, 1981.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Michael B. Leyden of the EIU Department of Elementary and Junior High School Education has co-authored a science methods textbook for Silver Burdett Publishers. *Teaching Science Grades 5-9* focuses on the latest research in brain functioning and learning theories appropriate for children in the middle school. His co-authors are Dr. Charles Barman of Buena Vista College in Storm Lake, Iowa; Virginia Johnson of Denver University; and John J. Rusch of the U-Wisconsin: Superior. This is Dr. Leyden's twelfth year at Eastern and he has written numerous journal articles and co-authored three other texts: *Careers in the Physical Sciences* for Houghton Mifflin Publishers; *Science 7* for Addison-Wesley: Canada; and *Life Science*, a junior high school text written for Addison-Wesley. He is presently completing *Physical Science* and that will be released in 1983.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Brionn Rolens, EIU student in the Department of Special Education, was Eastern's laureate recipient of the Lincoln Academy Award. She received from Governor Thompson, president of the academy, a Lincoln Medallion and a check for $100. The presentation ceremony in the House of Representatives, State House, Springfield, was held on November 21, 1981. Criteria for selection included academic achievement, artistic or technical talent, extra-curricular activity, and success in overcoming an economic handicap to gain an education. Mrs. Rolens was nominated for this award by the unanimous agreement of the faculty of the Department of Special Education.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

During the past few years the EIU School of Education has fostered the concepts of cultural pluralism and multiculutural education. Earlier this year, a proposal which originated from the SOE Affirmative Action Committee and was supported by the Center for Educational Services, was successfully submitted to the Danforth Foundation to fund a workshop on multicultural awareness for the EIU faculty and staff. The Multicultural Education Workshop represented an important and necessary step for educators and staff at Eastern Illinois University in relationship to understanding and living with ethnic and cultural diversity. Faculty, staff, and students are being urged to take time to look at their present values and practices in relation to the major goal of helping the individual to function effectively within the common culture, his or her ethnic culture, and other cultures.

Eastern is continuing its work on the "awareness" phase of education that is multicultural and completing the first phase of planning to make all education at EIU multicultural. Planning seminars have been held across the campus, and in the Spring, a University-wide planning committee will be established to provide collaborative input into staff and program development planning in multicultural education.

A linkage has been established between Illinois State University's Teacher Corps Project and the Center for Educational Services at Eastern Illinois Univerisity. This alliance has been established to address the issues and concerns centering around the broad concept of education that is multicultural. The groups have mutually decided to support planning and development seminars to facilitate the affirmation of multicultural education at Eastern.

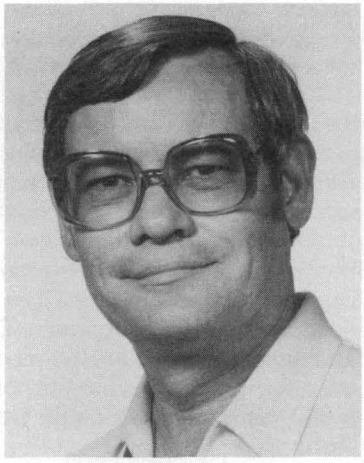
★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Dr. Gene Scholes, Director of the EIU Audio Visual Center, received an award from the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) for his participation and leadership activities in Region VI. Scholes has been a state officer of AECT for two years and serves on two national committees.

Educational Leaders or Administrators: Which Do We Want?

JACQUELINE E. JACOBS
EMIL R. SPEES

Jacqueline Jacobs is Assistant Professor, Special Education, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University.



Emil R. Spees is Assistant Professor in the Department of Higher Education, College of Education, Southern Illinois University-Carbondale.

This article will address the issues presented in, "The Role of the Humanities in the Preparation of Educational Leaders: Key to the Year 2000 and Beyond" by Ron Abrell as published in the Summer, 1981 issue of the *Eastern Education Journal*.

Abrell postulates that, "the specific qualifications needed for leadership in the year 2000 and beyond in education can certainly be fostered and perhaps be brought about by the study and understanding of the humanities." He goes on to state, "However, the educational institutions can not teach leaders how to attack problems logically and make decisions rationally." Yet, Abrell also suggests that, "institutions preparing educational leaders need to increase potential leaders' knowledge of the humanities, for it is from the humanities that they will learn *analytical, communication,* and *decision-making* skills. It is largely from humanities that they will broaden their understanding of others and themselves. It is for the most part from the humanities that leaders can learn to think more *rationally*, more *ethically*, and more *humanely*." (Emphasis added) It would appear that Abrell's postulate itself may suffer from an error in *analytical, rational decision making*.

Perspective

Abrell suggests that higher education suffers through a lack of leadership. That, in fact, a reduction in the emphasis on the humanities has contributed to this and that a return to the study of the humanities can contribute to the amelioration of the difficulties.

Perhaps Abrell's concern about educational leadership results from the prevailing view that leader is synonymous with administrator. What we *may* need in higher education are educational leaders and administrators — who may not necessarily be one and the same. From the historical perspective of universities, it has been only recently that the bureaucracy in U.S. higher education has been burdened with an abundance of administrative tasks. After all, the university has been viewed as a place where one learned from the scholars: those who had studied, and continued to study, the disciplines they presented. As those scholars gathered together in one place, and numbers of students came to learn, the institution developed. As the organization developed, a need for management emerged. This need was filled by the administrator. As the number of scholars increased, someone started making decisions about the coordination of the scholars' disciplines. Here began "recognized" educational leadership.

Educational leaders are those who view themselves, in the classical sense, as "first among equals." Those who lead by example through the transmission (teaching) of knowledge to peers and to those who come to learn. The influence of leaders can be manifest and observed without the power perceived through administrative status.

Several times Abrell suggests that the complex nature of educational problems makes "competent leadership nothing short of a survival course" and that, as university faculty, "we can reduce the huge number of leaders in education who are leaving their positions of leadership." Why would we want to? If they are competent leaders, they will survive. A *leader*, according to Webster's dictionary, is one who has "influence or directing power", as opposed to a *head*, who has "authority or executive power." The leader influences and directs equals, the head (administrator?) "has authority and executive power" that allows or disallows actions among those controlled. Higher education, in America, probably needed both. The issue is: Must they be one and the same?

Terminology

Abrell, throughout the article, uses highly emotionally charged words or phrases, such as, *frightening; devastating; survival course; absolutely critical; bureaucratic shrewdness; unusually tantalizing*, while stating that educational leaders must be analytical, rational, humane, communicative, and decisive. To argue effectively that the skills needed to be an educational leader are analysis, reason, *etc.*, one would need to show that emotionally charged phrases do not interfere with those skills.

The solution to the avowed current leadership problem posited by Abrell may lie in distinguishing our leaders from our administrators. Once we rationally and analytically decide what we want from those who lead, those who administer, and those (perhaps) few who lead *and* administer, we may be able to decide what in their education will best prepare them to do what must be done.

"Humanities Teach . . ."

Before we decide what to teach, we must first clarify that *people* teach and *people* learn. The humanities, according to Webster's dictionary, are "the branches of polite learning, especially the ancient classics and belleslettres." Therefore, the humanities can *teach* nothing. "Teaching is the control of the environment to bring about a change in behavior, be it social or academic." A teacher can teach the humanities to another individual by bringing about a change in the behavior of the learner based on the humanities. A learner can teach himself or herself by studying the classics through reading or listening, but *all* teaching and *all* learning requires humanity which is defined by Webster's dictionary as the "quality of being human; the peculiar nature of man, by which he is distinguished from other beings."

Abrell's article repeatedly states that "the humanities can teach." The humanities *can* provide a knowledge base, a record for the examination of humanity's behavior over time. However, teaching and learning require people. Whether the study of the humanities will contribute to the elimination of the problems facing leaders and/or administrators in higher education can, at best, be *predicted* from the examination of the training and experiential base of those commonly identified as "successful leaders" and/or "successful administrators." While such an examination might reveal some interesting data, the data will not guarantee that one will be successful by studying it.

Skills Learning

Abrell suggests that the desirable skills for educational leadership (a role never clearly defined by him) are those of "analysis, communication, humane treatment, and decision-making." If those skills are defined, assuming they are generally agreed upon as important, the particular discipline(s) that can best provide bases for the teaching and learning of these skills might be identified.

Analysis is the "separation of anything into constituent parts or elements; also an examination of anything to distinguish its component parts, separately, or in relation to the whole." Certainly one can argue that this is taught in the disciplines of philosophy, history, and English literature. But, are these skills not also taught in the sciences: physics, chemistry, zoology? Analytical skills are not limited to the humanities. Though they are necessary to understand the humanities, it well may be that since Darwin they have been more attended to in the sciences.

Communication is the "act or fact of communicating" which is, "to impart, convey, to make known" and the "intercourse by words, letters, or messages; interchange of thoughts or opinions." Surely all who teach, regardless of discipline, impart, convey, make known to others their discipline. But, even those who teach the humanities do not always participate in the *interchange* of thoughts and opinions. Most of us have had the opportunity to meet some scholarly mathematician who was far better able to participate in an *interchange* of thoughts, than is some other scholar of classical literature. Perhaps this is a result of the emphasis on proof in mathematics as opposed to the emphasis on interpretive skills required in classical literature.

Humane is defined as "having feelings and inclinations creditable to man . . . emphasizes kindness, benevolence, or sympathy, without necessary implication of a possible conflict between these and opposite feelings." Do we best learn these behaviors through the study of what has been written by one person as a record of what happened (*i.e.* the disciplines of the humanities) *or* could we not learn, as the behaviorists suggest, from trained observation (*i.e.* science) of the

behaviors of others? How many acknowledged leaders have credited their skills to the study of the behaviors of their mentors? (*e.g.* the great surgeon observed the physician who inspired him/her, the doctoral student who emulates his/her major mentor advisor). Are we sure the scholars of the humanities best teach the skills of being humane?

Decision is defined as a "settling or terminating, as of a controversy, by giving judgment on the matter; also, a conclusion arrived at after consideration." Certainly some scholars in the humanities have taught their students to make decisions. They have taught them that decisions must be made. Have they taught them *how* to make decisions? Can we be confident that a student who has read about decision making (be those decisions ever so important) will be able to follow in the footsteps of the great thinkers? Could not a programmer design a "decision-making tree" in Fortran programming that would be worthy of human emulation?

Is it not logical to assume that decision making is a scientific process that can be taught best by being involved (by practicing), by learning to analyze carefully, and to communicate clearly?

Conclusions

The answer to Abrell's concern for educational leadership for the year 2000 and beyond may be in the training of educational leaders in the humanities. However, it may more appropriately rest with the definition of roles for our leaders and/or administrators, the clarification of the part that human emotionalism plays in our lives, and finally, in the teaching/learning process that will lead to fulfillment of those roles.

The collegial model present in most institutions of higher education is based on a leader/head model. The *leaders* have been: Department Chairs, Academic Deans, and the Vice Presidents for Academic Affairs. The *heads* have been: the Vice Presidents for Business, Vice President or Dean of Student Services, Dean of Admissions, and perhaps others. The President has generally been asked to be in both camps in order to resolve the conflicts that arise and to give leadership to both. The educational leader/head concept seems desirable, but it often creates functional conflicts. The *head* who has to deal with budgets, contracts, and arbitration has duties that conflict with leadership responsibilities. How can one *lead* others to explore (research), create, teach, and serve and also be the *head* who must say, "No, there are no resources to support your research!", or who says, "That's a great idea but you must find external support if you wish to pursue it." An administrative head must make dollar decisions based on the best available data. But an educational leader makes decisions and gives encouragement based on ideas, and human development criteria. Perhaps educational managers should study the hospital administration model where the administrator is the business counsel and the chiefs or leaders of each department (*e.g.* surgery) are the scholars of the discipline. It is the role of the leader to demand the best performance and the role of the administrator to support those demands in the *best* possible manner.

Do we need the scholars of the humanities to teach educational leaders? Probably! However, we also need the scientists, the mathematicians, the psychologists, the sociologists, and the educators. But what we may need most is for the community of scholars to reclaim leadership and to decide duties they expect their heads, their administrators, to perform.

References

Abrell, Ron. The role of the humanities in the preparation of educational leaders: Key to the year 2000 and beyond. *Education Journal*, Summer 1981, *XIV*(2), 6-12.

Jacobs, John. Keynote Address, Australian Association of Special Education. August 1977, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (5th ed.). Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1937.

Dr. Robert Saltmarsh Honored

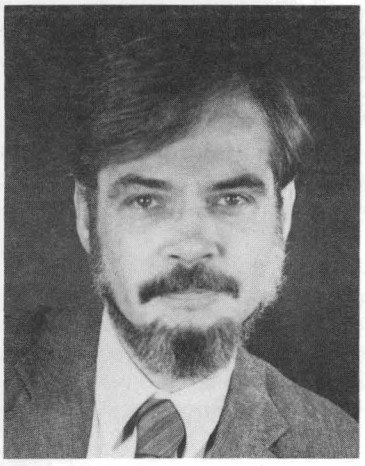
The Illinois Counselors and Supervisors Association presented its award for Distinguished Service 1981 to Dr. Robert Saltmarsh of the EIU Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance. The award was presented on November 13, at the Annual Convention of the Illinois Guidance and Personnel Association at the Americana Pick Hotel in Chicago. Established in 1973, the award recognizes outstanding service in the field of counselor education and counselor supervision. All IGPA members are eligible to be nominated for the award. The contribution may be from a variety of activities including: 1) outstanding leadership or supervision of pupil personnel programs or staffs; 2) development of unique programs, research, or training techniques; 3) making major contributions to professional organizations in the pupil personnel field.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

Dr. Cyrus "Gene" Blair, EIU Department of Elementary and Junior High Education, has been nominated for the 1981 Service Award. This award of the International Reading Association commends individuals with distinguished service records in the field of promotion of local, state, and national reading council activities. Blair has served as president of the local and state reading council and on the membership committee of the International Reading Association.

Literacy, Analytical Writing, and Restructuring Teaching Schedules for Secondary Level Language Arts

JOHN D. FINNEGAN



John D. Finnegan is Professor of English at West Liberty State College, West Virginia. He is an accomplished author and has published many articles on literary subjects.

Several years ago there was no educational issue more topical than that of the writing deficiencies of young adults. The spotlight has since shifted to other topics, yet the problem persists. Too many young people still cannot write analytically and critically. This occurs because they are not being taught to think analytically soon enough or frequently enough. Nor will they be until they are required to write in such a mode. Thinking and writing analytically are habits of being that are inculcated simultaneously or not at all.

Teaching for sixteen years on the college level has made me skeptical about what our undergraduate institutions alone can do to improve matters. My skepticism results in part from the fact that most freshmen, given their lack of preparation, either fail to learn how to think and write analytically, or they gain a facility minimally sufficient to permit them to enter degree programs where mimetic activity regularly supplants analytical activity.

Another source of my skepticism is the fact that baccalaureate programs constitute our primary rite of passage, our principal social medium for converting youth from living dependently and noncreatively to living independently and creatively. When society demands that its institutions of higher education process those whose lack of analytical skills excludes them from participating in the rite — and their number is legion — it perpetrates a deception so fundamental as to threaten its survival. In the meantime vocational education grows apace. With vocational education *per se* I have no quarrel, but when it expands at the expense of reflective skills, the ability of persons to take responsibility for their social, intellectual, aesthetic, moral, and spiritual being-in-the-world is proportionately restricted.

The colleges and universities can minimize this problem by reverting to stringent entrance requirements, but this is highly unlikely. Moreover, it is undesirable. For even if the significance of undergraduate degrees were to be restored in this way, it would deprive many young people of a crucial means for effecting the passage from immaturity to maturity.

This passage can be made available on the scale needed through analytical thinking, the kind of thinking that discovers and interrelates structures rather than the kind of thinking that learns and applies given structures either piecemeal or in predetermined sequences. For this passage, composition programs that stress analytical writing are indispensable. Because analytical writing generates more participation, it is more effective than any reading program, no matter how sophisticated. Analytical writing presupposes the ability to read actively, but reading actively does not presuppose the ability to write analytically.

As the ability to think complex matters through in clear prose, literacy is a habit of mind, a mode of existence. As such it cannot be taught in a single eight-and-a-half-month, two-course sequence. If literacy were only a matter of correct grammar, punctuation, and usage, a couple of composition courses would in most instances suffice. Learning to think and write analytically, however, is a difficult process, an incremental process, and hence a slow process — one that needs sustained concentration and constant practice. Given their current lack of preparation, expecting most freshmen to acquire in a single academic year the depth and breadth of knowledge an undergraduate program should provide (specifically, knowledge of how to structure definitively, correlate synthetically, and evaluate comparatively) is absurd. With falling enrollments projected through the 1990s, this creates a double bind for all but a few colleges and universities; either they raise standards and risk losing a third to two-thirds of every freshman class, or they permit the whole curriculum to be diluted.

Most schools have gone the route of the second al-

ternative, more by default than by choice. No school administration that I know of has mandated that its faculty lower their criteria. Nor have many professors deliberately lowered their own standards. Nevertheless, that standards have significantly depreciated in the last five years can be readily documented from a variety of sources. One cause is increased numbers of students who need more and more "background" in order to assimilate the concepts and relationships that comprise the content of introductory courses.

The influx of students needing more background causes introductory courses to sink, often imperceptively, into foundations-level courses and upper-division courses to become more like introductory courses. It also causes professors to employ more objective testing methods at the expense of essay testing methods, to abandon comprehensive examinations, and to evaluate exclusively in terms of content rather than in terms of form and content. Composition instructors are finding that they are working their students to capacity on such basic elements as syntax, punctuation, and paragraph form and on such basic skills as reading comprehension and library research. Equally pathetic and exasperating is the discovery that numerous other students regress as they continue their undergraduate careers because their specialization courses and general studies courses often do not compel them to use the skills they developed in freshman composition.

If this state of affairs is to change, students must be taught the fundamentals of analytical writing in the secondary schools. This sounds like buck-passing. It is not.

The longer the teaching of essential communication skills is postponed, the more difficult learning them becomes. Equally true is the deduction that, if our colleges and universities are to proceed with intensive academic programs, they must be supplied with entering students who have gained *some facility* with the basic modes of analytical thinking and writing. Students can be taught these fundamentals on the secondary level. The question is, will society and the secondary schools implement the necessary restructuring?

The current structure is too slack. Since most college-bound high school students now take three units of language arts, they attend language arts classes five days a week for three academic years. In terms of class hours this represents a substantial investment — more than is devoted to most other subject areas on the secondary level. The curriculum for this sequence of language arts units is quite varied: spelling, vocabulary, reading comprehension, grammar, punctuation, and occasionally research paper writing and some creative writing. Still the results are negligible. Some graduate with the ability to identify parts of speech and to make passing scores on objective punctuation, grammar, and usage tests; but many cannot transpose their knowledge of these linguistic elements into their writing. While most graduate without even a theoretical grasp of these elements, almost none can write analytically.

The primary problem, therefore, is not what is taught but how it is taught. The spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar, and even the reading comprehension often go unassimilated because such material is presented as an end in itself. The only way it can be thoroughly grasped is by being presented as a means. Clear and coherent analytical writing, in other words, must be made the chief competency in all three of the language arts units presently required of college-tracked high school students. A high school student who receives one unit of composition is rare; most receive a half unit.

For writing to become the end, and every other aspect of communications arts to be subordinated to this end, the language arts teacher must assume a new role — that of composition teacher. As composition teacher, he will still observe formal writing conventions but not in isolation from analytical thinking. This strategy, however, presupposes a substantial modification of the language arts teacher's present schedule of instruction.

The present schedule for communication arts teachers in our high schools consists of six classes of approximately 25 students each, a total of 150 students. These classes, moreover, meet five times a week. Given these conditions, no one should wonder why writing is not taught on the secondary level. There is no time for it.

The most time-consuming form of teaching is the teaching of composition. Unlike creative writing, analytical writing is primarily an acquired skill, a skill that is mastered only through constant, carefully monitored practice. Once the student has completed an analytical writing assignment, the instructor must evaluate it and return it for revisions which in turn must be evaluated.

The average length of an analytical writing assignment is two to three pages of typed copy. Where analytical processes are involved, anything less usually militates against adequate development. Accordingly, if the instructor intends not only to mark all mechanical, punctuational, grammatical, dictional, and rhetorical errors but to comment on organizational strengths and weaknesses and to suggest revisional strategies, he must be prepared to devote an average of twenty minutes to each paper. This means that every time he collects a single assignment from 150 students he will need 50 hours to process them, as much time as he spends teaching, counselling, supervising, moderating extracurricular activities, attending committee meetings, preparing lessons, and evaluating quizzes, tests, exercises and however many revisions a given writing assignment generates. Obviously, only monastics or clones can maintain this kind of work load.

The solution is also obvious: a substantial reduction in the number of composition courses assigned to language arts instructors, a substantial reduction in class size, and a substantial reduction in class hours. The recommended model, in other words, is the teaching schedule of college professors — four courses that convene three times a week. Additional class periods should be writing laboratory periods. Enrollment in these four courses should not exceed twenty

students.

If these recommendations are adopted, I am certain that the thinking and writing habits of Americans would greatly improve. They would improve because composition teachers could then process an analytical writing assignment and several quizzes, tests, or exercises for each of 80 students on a bi-weekly basis within a 60-hour work week. A 60-hour work week is no light load, but it is one that communications arts teachers can maintain without jeopardizing their health, sanity, or domestic life-style.

Probably the greatest obstacle to restructuring the schedules of communication arts teachers is the expense, at least a third again as much as for the present system in order to accommodate the difference between six courses and four courses per teacher. Another obstacle would be teachers in other fields who think that composition teachers were being pampered. This problem, though, could be contained partly through the dissemination of accurate information and partly through the support of principals, superintendents, and boards of education. I am not suggesting that winning the support of other faculty members is an easy problem to resolve, only that persuading taxpayers to underwrite the plan constitutes a prior and more universal problem.

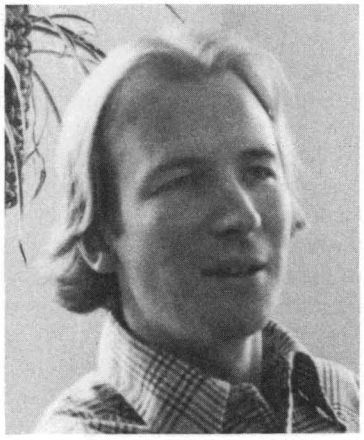
In spite of these and other difficulties, this cause is worthy of our best evangelical efforts. The public needs to know what the real options are: either the continuation of communication arts programs that preclude the inculcating of rational habits of thought and expression or the implementing of programs that can instill these skills. We need not convince the public about the wastefulness of the present system. The news media have enlightened taxpayers on this score already. What we do need to convince them of is our sincerity, which just may be possible if we affirm unambiguously that the money requested will buy not the desired objectives directly but time — the time teachers need to teach and the time students need to learn. Communication arts teachers, for the most part, are sufficiently trained to teach the desired analytical skills; the students, for the most part, are capable of learning them.

What this proposal amounts to is a two-stage rite of passage, a baptismal stage for which the secondary schools would assume responsibility and a confirmational stage for which the colleges would assume responsibility. To expect either the secondary schools or the colleges to actualize the whole passage from mental immaturity to mental maturity is unrealistic. Moreover, if such a division of labor were to occur, the present danger of vocational education posing as an alternative, rather than serving as a supplement, to reflective education would recede.

VIEWPOINT . . .

Teaching a Philosophy of Alienation in the Schools

JOE L. KINCHELOE



Joe L. Kincheloe is the chairman of the Education Department at Sinte Gleska College on the Rosebud Reservation, South Dakota.

Students who will live their lives in a world marked by an estrangement from modern existence for many individuals need to be exposed to the sources of alienation. At the outset, I should assert that I am not advocating that the schools assume a new social responsibility. It is extremely popular, and probably true, for educators to maintain that the schools are held unjustly accountable for a multitude of social and individual aberrations. The schools should not be held responsible for the solution to the problem of alienation in the modern world. But neither should secondary and elementary schools be agencies, as they are presently, which hide alienation from students. Educators give lip service to the idea that schools should not teach values, but by concealing the concept of alienation they are implicitly teaching a world view. Therefore, the inclusion of alienation in the modern public school classroom is merely a step toward a more balanced curriculum, not a

panacea to the problem of alienation in the twentieth century.

One who is alienated is a stranger (alien). Twentieth century alienation is characterized by individuals who feel like strangers even in environments with which they are intimately familiar. Obviously, this is a serious problem which manifests itself in a multitude of ways. The alienated are bored, frustrated, apathetic, and angry. En masse they become Riesman's "lonely crowd." Society devours and stifles the individual; spontaneity, creativity, productivity, and self-worth are strewn like beer cans along the side of the twelve lane expressway.

The causes of alienation are numerous, but the foundation of twentieth century alienation rests upon the rapid growth of industrialization and technology. As industrialization develops, individuals are uprooted from their primary group. Workers move from the country to the city in search of employment, severing their ties with the natural environment. In the industrialized environment marked by a division of labor, specialization, and interdependence, the uprooted worker's ability to dictate the flow of events around him and to undertand his world diminish. The industrial man is no longer his own master, for forces outside of his control shape his existence.

The worker is separated from what he produces. As Marx anticipated, workers in the modern industrialized society have little control over what they produce or how to dispose of their product. The industrial man has no product which he recognizes as his own, for craftmanship is dead. With the specialization of labor, work becomes boring and degrading, and creativity becomes not a virtue to be cultivated, but a vice to be suppressed.

There are other causes of alienation in the twentieth century. We have lost the security provided by the traditional family structure. Bureaucracy separates us from the concept of accountability or responsibility for our actions. Technological development has not only failed to deliver us into an earthly promised land but has further served to erode control of our destinies. High energy technologies and the large institutions they create become ends in themselves. As the technologies become more and more sophisticated, individuals care less and less about self-sufficiency and human interdependence. People become slaves of technology and large institutions that are controlled by a small knowledgeable elite. Alienation increases as people lose their ability to control their own social and technological tools. Society becomes less socially reflecting and humanistic, as individual determination of needs is relinquished to the technicians.

The development of suburbia and its cultural expression in modern America seems to illustrate this estrangement between man, work, and environment. Individuality is engulfed in an orgy of conforming influences. Suburbs are constructed for one economic level or, generally, one level of taste. People of different ethnic or racial backgrounds are excluded from the suburbs by a variety of factors. Even when ethnic, racial, or religious diversity exists, the conformist pressures of the suburbs often blur the distinction to the point of meaninglessness. Thus, the suburbanite is isolated from that which challenges him to see the world from different perspectives.

The suburbanite must struggle with numerous forces which alienate him from the real world. He is out of contact with nature, and contact with nature contributes to a less estranged view of the life processes. The suburbanite who is cut off from nature loses an intimacy with processes such as life and death, which serves to impede further man's ability to formulate a realistic world view and reduce his alienation. Too often in the industrialized, suburbanized world individuals are alienated from the meaning of life itself. The purpose for existence revolves around the search for status — no activity can be valued for itself apart from this perpetual quest. The schools of the industrial, suburban milieu reflect and reinforce these attitudes toward status and competition. Indeed, the schools themselves become another component in the general alienation of society. Given the inability of most students and many teachers to appreciate school activities on their own merit, the functions of education must be interpreted within the framework of industrial, suburban values. Academic achievement assumes relevance only in terms of the perpetual quest for status.

If alienation is such an important part of twentieth century life, why then is it virtually ignored by the public schools? A number of factors contribute to its suppression in American education. In the first place America has never been an ideological society. Recognition of alienation implies that an individual is struggling with ideological questions concerning his surroundings. This struggle with ideology has never been an endeavor that Americans have considered very important. Interestingly, the public schools have tended to be less ideological than the society at large. Traditionally rote-based and factually oriented, the American public school has largely ignored analytical interpretation and paid only lip service to critical thinking development. As a result, it is not an institution where one would likely overhear conversations between teachers concerning alienation.

Teachers in American public schools are predominantly conservative, and in their acceptance of the status quo, they do not sense the importance of the concept of alienation. In the majority of cases, those who enter teaching strongly identified with their own teachers, and it is not usually the agent of change who identifies with conservative public school teachers. In addition, a system of male dominance exacerbates public school conservatism. The majority of male teachers desire upward mobility in the school social hierarchy; thus, their conservatism is accentuated by their emulation of entrenched administrators as role models.

The majority of teachers come from working class and farm backgrounds and view teaching as a step up the social ladder. As new members of the middle class, they are insecure in their changing social role. Thus, they tend to over-identify with the middle class, and in their "status anxiety," they "out middle class" the middle class in their defense of the status quo. One of the

last topics on the minds of these upwardly mobile new teachers is social alienation.

Not only does teaching attract predominantly conservative people, but the teacher-hiring process serves to screen further the unorthodox and the liberal who are attracted to the profession. Most school boards, principals, and personnel officers will not hire someone with a known history of social dissent. Social and political reformers are viewed as possible troublemakers who stand to offend the community and interfere with the smooth operation of the school hierarchy. The on-the-job socialization process reinforces conservatism. Teachers that exhibit docility, passivity, and politically conservative attitudes on the job are rewarded. Those who question authority, initiate methodoligical and curricular change, and express politically liberal attitudes are punished.

In the present social climate marked by the growth and the professional organization of the Moral Majority and the political right, teachers are under even more social and community pressure to "play it safe." Jerry Falwell has used his sermons, which are carried by 394 TV stations and 500 radio stations, to urge moral Americans to monitor their local schools for examples of secular humanism, anti-Americanism, and immoral teaching. Instruction which attends to the importance of twentieth century alienation would fall into at least one of Falwell's dangerous categories. Alice Moore, leader of the Kanawha County Textbook Controversy, articulates the moral right's attitudes concisely when she proclaims that she will work to thwart teaching which questions respect for other people's property, the superiority of the American political system, free enterprise economics, and the history of America as the record of one of the noblest civilizations which has ever existed. The goal of emphasizing the racial, cultural, and philosophical diversity of American society is, Moore contends, anti-American, anti-authority, depressing, and negative. With the pressures that the Moral Majority is capable of exerting, few teachers in the 1980's are willing to attack topics as volatile as alienation.

Not only are the schools handicapped by a prevalent conservative bias, a restrictive social climate, and a stifling lack of diversity; American education has harbored a need to paint a "Polyannistic" picture of the world. Such a world view is really quite dangerous, for it leaves students unprepared to view life realistically. Needless to say, the study of alienation is the antithesis of this smilely-face education.

From kindergarten to high school, students are subjected to a false serenity which leads to an unquestioning mindlessness among those who never experience a challenge to their acquired world view. On the other hand, anxiety and disillusionment await these students who encounter the underside of the American dream. A third category, usually the economically disadvantaged, sometimes dismisses the happy-faced teachers because they know that the rosy pitch was a sham from the start. Despite the poverty which surrounds them, even some of these students from the lowest rung of the economic ladder are victimized by the "happy talk" of education, as their frustrations are heightened at the realization that they do not fit in the Norman Rockwell America reproduced by their teachers.

The absence of attention to alienation leaves its scars across disciplinary lines. Elementary and secondary social studies tend to be factually-oriented, emphasizing the never ending American success saga. English and literature, especially in this social climate, rarely examine writers who grapple with themes of social, personal, and religious alienation. Economics tends to be a tribute to the American free enterprise system, neglecting to analyze the causes or the results of its failures. Elementary and secondary physical science fails to address the impact of scientific progress and the blight of technological alienation which frustrates modern man. Within each of these disciplines there are teachers who integrate the study of alienation into their curricula. As discussed earlier, however, they are not rewarded and are often punished insidiously by fellow teachers who view their efforts as irrelevant; students who find such strange notions exceedingly hard to grasp having had little prior experience with the concepts; administrators fearful of public relations difficulties; parents who fail to comprehend the relevance of such teaching to vocational success; and moral leaders of the community who sense an anti-American, anti-Christian bent to the instruction.

What can be done to balance the curriculum? In the present social climate, very little. In an era marked by a death of panaceas, educators who value the inclusion of alienation in the public school curriculum must satisfy themselves with limited objectives. One of the few strategies available to those concerned involves the strengthening of the frequently inadequate content training of colleges of education. Prospective teachers escape from teacher training programs without the benefit of exposure to questions of alienation and its role in the educational process. The analysis of the relationship between school and society still seems superfluous to many leaders of education departments in American universities and colleges. Given the various pressures which bar serious consideration of alienation in America's public education, dramatic change in the near future is certainly dim. It is certain, however, that if we make no attempt to familiarize education students with the concept of alienation and its salient role in the public school curriculum, we will have done nothing to combat the mindlessness which has pervaded American education for so long.

Andrew Brulle, EIU Special Education Department, has had an article entitled "Correspondence Between Effectiveness and Staff Use of Instructions for Severely Retarded Persons" published in the most recent edition of *Applied Research in Mental Retardation*. His article entitled "Applied Naturalistic Observation: A Response to Gilter and Gordon" was published in the November, 1981 issue of *Exceptional Children*. Brulle was recently notified that his chapter, "Reducing Aggressive Behavior of Mentally Retarded Persons" will appear in the Plenum Press publication, *Handbook of Behavior Modification with the Mentally Retarded.*

Eastern and the Decade of the Eighties

GLENN WILLIAMS

Glenn Williams is the Vice President for Student Affairs at Eastern Illinois University.

In its document entitled *"The End of Growth: Ramifications for Higher Education Planning and Policy"*, the Board of Higher Education in Illinois posed two key questions which may well serve as considerational guides for board action in the 80's. The first of these points to the role of competition for students, i.e. . . ." Should competitive forces be given more latitude to operate in the future and thereby become a primary means for altering the mix of institutions and programs in Illinois?" ("The End of Growth", 1977)

Further on in the planning paper, the Board amplifies on the crux of the issue as follows: "Certainly, a study of end of growth issues would be incomplete if financing policies for higher education were not considered . . . how should these dollars be delivered (that is) through what budget mechanism?" ("The End of Growth", 1977)

Both of these questions suggest that an enrollment driven formula for budget determination (or some variation thereof) may be just down the road in the eighties. Demography may be (arguably) the single most important economic force bearing on the educational enterprise in the current decade.

Numbers, however, are only part of the problem. Higher education has completed its period of greatest growth and has asserted its claim to a steadily increasing share of the economic pie. In the next decade, the percentage of the population directly concerned with formal education will diminish and, to that extent, political interest and support will wane. Allusion to this condition was well stated in the spring issue of the *Educational Record*. "One implication just now being recognized is the differential effect of population change in the budgets of various levels of Government." (Breneman, 1981) The point is further emphasized, and expanded upon, in the Federal Government's budget report. "Education is the largest single component of most state and local budgets whereas retirement and disability programs are the largest single component of the Federal budget. The school age sector will decline as a percentage of the total population, while the retired age sector will grow both absolutely and proportionately from now until well beyond the year 2000." ("The Budget of", 1980)

There is, of course, a flicker of positiveness in the whole picture. All else being equal, the declining number of 18-21 year-olds should translate by the mid 80's into a much improved labor market for college graduates.

Expenditures: Federal Progra

School Year	Basic Ed. Oppt. Grant #	$	National Direct Student Loan #	$	College Work Study #	$
1970-71	0		718	308,537	461	208,825
1971-72	0		733	351,706	373	186,225
1972-73	0		725	354,200	365	173,371
1973-74	160	42,829	621	371,252	316	102,680
1974-75	396	248,843	581	336,058	327	121,590
1975-76	920	737,775	602	377,453	505	196,040
1976-77	1512	1,234,190	640	380,099	510	216,487
1977-78	1356	1,107,377	657	354,895	561	226,447
1978-79	1345	1,130,964	675	378,312	564	270,130
1979-80	2341	2,029,517	647	338,832	639	306,877
1980-81**	2170	1,851,087	500	358,400	575	368,640
1981-82**	1085	925,544	442	317,000	490	314,118

**These amounts for these years (1980-81 and 1981-82) are estimated amounts.

In all of this and interlaced inextricably through the matrix is the financial implication of survival. In the April (1981) issue of the Phi Delta Kappan, 202 private and 325 public institutional presidents were polled as to what they felt would be the number one issue of the 80's in higher education. "Financial Concerns" topped the list, and the second cited issue (enrollment declines), by over 16 percentage points. (Duea, 1981) Inherent in such an attention-getting environment is the danger that institutions of higher learning will devote an inordinate amount of time and energy to Bizspeak and management to the exclusion of considerations for teaching and academia (which is why the institution was established in the first place). In short, accounting mentalities may manage the university rather than the university managing accounting mentalities.

This issue, number one in the eighties, may not be a simplistic business management vs. academic pursuit contest, but a complex push-pull relationship between public universities, private colleges, legislatures and Boards of Control. Central to all of this, however, will be the quantitative factor of student population. A bell weather of things to come was afforded this spring when the Illinois State Scholarship Commission experienced a 3.4 million dollar shortfall (Or was it 3.5 or 3.6? They were never quite sure.) After some decision-making at the highest levels, i.e., Board of Higher Education, Bureau of the Budget, etc., the decision was made to bill student benefactors in order to retrieve the shortfall funds. An alternative suggestion was to pass a supplemental appropriation to cover the shortfall. An attempt at such legislation came up empty, hence the adoption of the assessment route.

Now one might think it a simple matter to assess according to what was received. That is to say, those who received the most would return the most on a percentage basis. Nothing of the kind. Since the State is committed to keeping private colleges afloat, a formula was devised which would cause public universities to pay back all but a small percentage of the funds, while private colleges, (which *receive* all but a small percentage of the public ISSC monies), would pay back relatively little of the shortfall. The purpose in relating this saga is to point up the fact that the push-pull higher education will experience in the eighties is not only a joust of educational community vs. other tax-user entities, but it is going on within the educational community itself.

All of this portends an academic decade in which the educational body count (both personal and institutional) may rival the military decade of the Vietnam sixties.

Illinois is not the only state facing such prospects in its public and private sectors. Witness the following:

"There isn't enough money to go around. Higher education is losing ground in this state. We may have to close Lewis and Clark College." (Mitzman, 1981)

"Citing a critical fiscal and administrative situation that imperils the academic programs, the executive committee of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges recommends that the organization withdraw its accreditation of Goddard College. Unity College is continued on fiscal probation for essentially the same reason." (Biemiller, 1981)

"A financial and enrollment emergency will force Colorado Women's College to dismiss 25 to 35 full-time faculty and sell about a third of the campus." ("Financial Crisis", 1981)

Nor is jeopardy limited to the private sector — lest we here on this campus become too complacent. To wit: "Michigan State has established an 'outplacement office' to aid dismissed faculty members in finding new jobs. Cuts include elimination of 25 faculty in arts and letters, closing the planetarium and dissolving the biophysics department, elimination of graduate programs in elementary education. In addition, deep cuts were made in the College of Veterinary Medicine." ("Michigan Cut", 1981) And . . .

Four State colleges in Pennsylvania have notified 89 tenured faculty members that their jobs will be terminated next September as part of an effort by the state system of Higher Education to balance the budget and adjust to declining enrollments." (Middleton, 1979)

The above herald cuts and retrenchments that are planned (albeit not very well) over a period of months, if

ms and ISSC at EIU 1971-80

Supplemental Ed. Opt. Grant		Illinois Guaranteed Loan		Illinois State Scholarship		Totals	EIU Enrollment
#	$	#	$	#	$	$	
397	195,585	1258	1,455,403	1504	640,666	2,809,016	8,652
322	199,675	Not	Available	1797	939,871	1,677,378	8,790
311	199,745	978	1,091,470	1979	1,184,745	3,003,531	8,607
228	104,020	609	968,451	1885	1,045,091	2,634,323	8,035
121	102,950	1025	1,224,021	1998	934,646	2,968,108	8,026
285	113,723	974	1,295,549	2542	1,188,430	3,908,970	8,994
182	59,565	730	906,883	2327	1,205,662	4,002,886	9,252
253	82,768	881	1,381,176	2232	1,333,701	4,486,364	9,384
283	71,375	1349	2,171,160	2217	1,351,564	5,373,505	9,585
425	109,170	2373	4,384,817	1829	1,116,905	8,286,118	9,717
238	69,581	4000	7,500,000	2070	1,458,833	11,606,541	9,989
383	112,093	3000	3,750,000	1553	1,260,652	6,679,407	

not years. There is at least a warning signal before their implementation. While knowing the distance you will drop and the tensile strength of the rope doesn't necessarily change the condition of the hanging, it does help you to arrange your affairs if you can at least know the day upon which you will be hung.

Such academic "dancing on air" may come unexpectedly during the course of a year as the crunch of the eighties grinds even finer. Jack Magarrell, writing in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* cites a number of ongoing reductions which, ten years ago, would have been unthinkable, much less believable. One governor wants to be able to cut back budgets throughout the year without consulting the Legislature. In three other states, governors have reduced budgets because of federal monies reductions. Edward Q. Moulton, for the Board of Regents in Ohio says, "The Govenor has asked that we return 3% of our already granted budget. This comes at a time when enrollment has increased by 4.5%" ("New Budget," 1980)

All these developing fiscal conditions are salted with a suggestion of enrollment leverage. Legislators may not be able to analyze fine-tuned quality (more honors scholars than your competitors), they may not "cotton" to scholarly contributions (papers read at National meetings, appointment to state or national committees), but they can certainly count, and anyone knows that it takes more dollars to educate 2,000 students than it does to do the same job for 1,000 (theoretically at least). Thus appeals on the basis of apparent need (raw numbers) are more likely to be identified and viewed in a positive manner than are appeals based on maintenance of quality programs or scholarly contributions to the field. Public service and even research (except in certain quantitatively identifiable areas), are also likely to make poor levers for opening the public coffers.

This pressure on maintaining numbers is likely to place state governing boards squarely in the position of routing students. That is to say, governing boards are likely to take both direct and indirect steps to see that seats are filled across the state, or at least that empty seats are fairly evenly distributed. And in states like Illinois, where private schools have strong lobbies, they will have to contend with a certain deference to maintaining the enrollment health of privates as well as publics.

See the following brief chart, which depicts the ever-increasing siphoning off of public funds into the private sector.

Monetary Awards By Institution

	1976-1977		1977-1978		1978-1979		1979-1980		1958-1980	
	Awards	Dollars	Awards	Dollars	Awards	Dollars	Awards	Dollars	Awards	Dollars
Public 4-Year Totals	34,143	18,417,101	33,626	21,085,546	33,565	21,604,000	29,242	19,668,018	356,354	188,069,000
Private 4-Year Totals	30,052	38,296,641	30,317	39,896,866	31,221	44,015,000	31,825	48,516,203	351,175	407,707,000

Illinois is not alone, however, in its financing of private college seats while public institutions sport vacancies. Most startling of the redirections of public funds may be in Michigan. While dismissing professors, curtailing budgets and closing departments at public universities, the legislature approved 16 million dollars in grants to private college students. This represents a 75% increase over last year's provender. It may be that Chrysler has company in the bail out ranks.

Let us now take a look at the student pool from which we will be drawing. Even though an expanded horizon as to who the college goer may be (retraining at mid life, extended services attendance, etc.) is in vogue, it is likely that schools like Eastern will depend, in the main, on the traditional age group in order to prosper. From the two following charts it can be seen that prospects for an expanded pool in Illinois are not at all bright.

Add to the above, the fact that eleven states can be expected to have decreased enrollments during the next decade due to the exporting of students alone (Arkansas, Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, New York, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio and Penn-

	1978 (actual)	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
California	261,698	260,878	256,892	249,082	248,253	234,551	223,839	218,432
Illinois	140,690	139,153	134,735	130,617	127,968	119,200	112,352	107,546
Indiana	78,000	78,390	76,349	75,338	74,791	70,126	65,038	63,163
Iowa	43,726	44,132	42,956	41,893	40,229	37,317	34,959	33,500
Kentucky	41,611	42,241	41,266	41,745	41,033	38,865	36,941	35,633
Missouri	64,564	64,761	64,423	62,794	62,687	58,417	54,478	52,309
New York	210,720	209,692	201,167	198,731	194,886	185,438	175,476	165,726
Pennsylvania	156,918	155,311	146,937	144,919	143,672	135,651	128,981	123,434
Wisconsin	71,295	71,288	69,664	67,473	66,236	62,354	60,018	57,105
TOTALS	1,069,222	1,065,846	1,034,389	1,012,592	999,755	941,919	892,082	856,848

sylvania). This appears to put not only a double but a triple whammy on Illinois. The third thump in this troica of blows is the number of institutions extant in the state (147 public/private, two-year/four-year). By 1990 (assuming the state is successful in supporting both the public and the private sectors as it is now doing), Illinois will rank sixth in available student pool, but fourth from the top in total numbers of institutions extant (New York — 285, California — 247, Pennsylvania — 175, all three have more institutions than Illinois). (Magarrell, 1980) Nine of the states with numerically greater institutional presence are major exporters of students. Illinois is one of these. ("Educational Directory", 1979)

From the data presented, it can be seen that both internal and external factors may work to the detriment of the educational health of Illinois' higher education institutions during the decade ahead.

In an attempt to draw projective inferences from the trends, statistics, and reflective factors herein presented we should keep in mind that the currents of political and economic change can drastically revise predictions, no matter how carefully concluded. With that in mind, let us narrow our predictive observations to the Eastern scene rather than dwell upon the nation, region, or state.

The fact that enrollments here have remained healthy, despite fluctuations and downward trends in the balance of the state, gives good indication that we have the potential to fare well (or better than others) in recruitment during the decade of the eighties.

If we fare *only as well as the average institution* and if the student pool drops as predicted, we would have slightly under 7,000 students by 1995 (6,893). Obviously such a drop would necessitate serious reassessment of faculty and staff support.

Utilizing the existing recruitment programs now in place, our best thinking is that we would fare better than the average, thus only drop to a point slightly above the 8,000 mark — a percentage decrease of 18%. Clearly, we will have to revise our approach on several fronts if we want to do better than this (that is to say better than the average and better than our existing approaches will permit us to do).

Such revisions would include:

a. A more expansive time schedule for classes which will permit attendance by a more diversified student body during evening hours and on weekends with the possibility of an entire Bachelor's degree without formal on-campus enrollment and residence.
b. Develop a Marketing approach to determine the needs of "clientele" we serve — particularly the 30 and beyond pool.
c. Develop a cooperative agreement with area community colleges to take over more efficiently where they leave off in adult learner education.
d. Direct contact with the industrial community with respect to "industrially-engaged-student instruction, on the scene".
e. Establishment of day care center and other support entities, designed to ease the contingent demands on older students as they pursue degrees.
f. Rolling pursuit of stop-outs on a systematic basis rather than waiting for the student with an interrupted program to contact us for readmission.
g. A round robin circuit of "alumni and friends" desserts at various locations throughout the state to solicit support for programs and personnel, supplemented by a long-term investment in Alumni Office development.
h. An actively pursued "retread" curriculum, with targeted interest groups which are contacted periodically from the school or departmental level.
i. A continuing and expanded effort to increase support funds from sources other than appropriated dollars. (See the chart on pages 16 & 17 for a correlation of "enrollment and student support dollars" and enrollment growth over the past 10 years.)

As a capstone of caution, one should conclude by citing those areas which, if imposed upon the institution can switch the decision making process and possibly institutional security beyond our powers to either modify or correct.

a. Regulations imposed which are designed to thwart local efforts to excel, i.e. (enrollment limitations, short falls in state scholarship funds that must be "eaten" locally, call-backs of percentage amounts of already-granted budgets and restrictions as to "sphere of influence" areas in the state beyond which an institution may not go).
b. Wars, depressions, or radical changes in technology.
c. Changes in Federal or State policy which would

1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
217,103	226,228	232,844	220,142	204,182	198,432	207,656	211,415	221,266	231,571
104,840	105,894	109,078	106,777	97,055	91,963	91,963	92,103	92,611	96,403
61,604	61,813	63,985	65,178	60,480	57,963	56,920	56,343	55,148	58,222
32,733	33,242	34,215	33,219	30,695	28,955	30,205	30,787	30,943	33,420
35,279	36,005	37,336	37,941	34,703	33,076	32,965	33,693	34,117	36,152
50,642	52,211	53,456	53,787	48,938	46,247	46,791	46,137	46,366	49,181
158,338	156,975	158,489	144,700	129,018	121,201	120,588	118,893	118,575	120,888
118,561	117,898	120,170	115,033	104,578	98,118	96,957	95,348	94,746	98,210
56,836	56,284	56,566	54,182	48,905	47,107	48,872	48,871	48,792	51,422
835,936	846,550	866,139	830,959	758,554	723,062	732,917	733,590	742,564	775,469

channel more (or less) governmental aid to students for matriculation.

d. Governmental policies which are designed to provide more jobs and advancement opportunities for college graduates. (Two thousand teachers will lose their jobs in Illinois alone next year due to financial cut backs. Most people agree that the work is there — and needs to be done — if the funds exist to finance it.) (Burdeen, 1980)
e. The effect of inflation on tuition, fees, and collateral college cost.
f. A change in the draft during peace-time conditions.
g. A change in the general attitude about ethics in recruitment (Head Bounty, professional "locaters", etc.)

The above, notwithstanding, it is likely that (if we are left to our own resources and ingenuity, and if we get just reasonable support), Eastern Illinois University will do better than "all right" during the decade at hand — and beyond.

References

Biemiller, L. Goddard College's accreditation threatened. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, January 12, 1981, *21* (18), 13.

Breneman, D. Higher education and the economy. *Educational Record*, Spring 1981, *62* (2), 20.

The budget of the United States government: fiscal year 1980. Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979, pp. 52-53.

Burdeen, C. Speaking to the Illinois Federation of Teachers Chicago, Spring 1980.

Duea, J. President's view on current and future issues in higher education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, April 1981, *62* (8), 586-587.

Educational directory, colleges and universities: 1979-80. Washington D.C.: National Center for Educational Statistics, February 1979.

The end of growth: ramifications for higher education planning and policy. Chicago: State of Illinois Board of Higher Education, Item #12, November 1, 1977.

Financial crisis hits Colorado women's college. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, January 12, 1981, *21* (18), 2.

Magarrell, J. The 1980s: Higher education's 'not me' decade. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, January 7, 1980, *19* (16), 6-9.

Michigan cut backs and cut outs. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, August 2, 1981, *22*(24), 6.

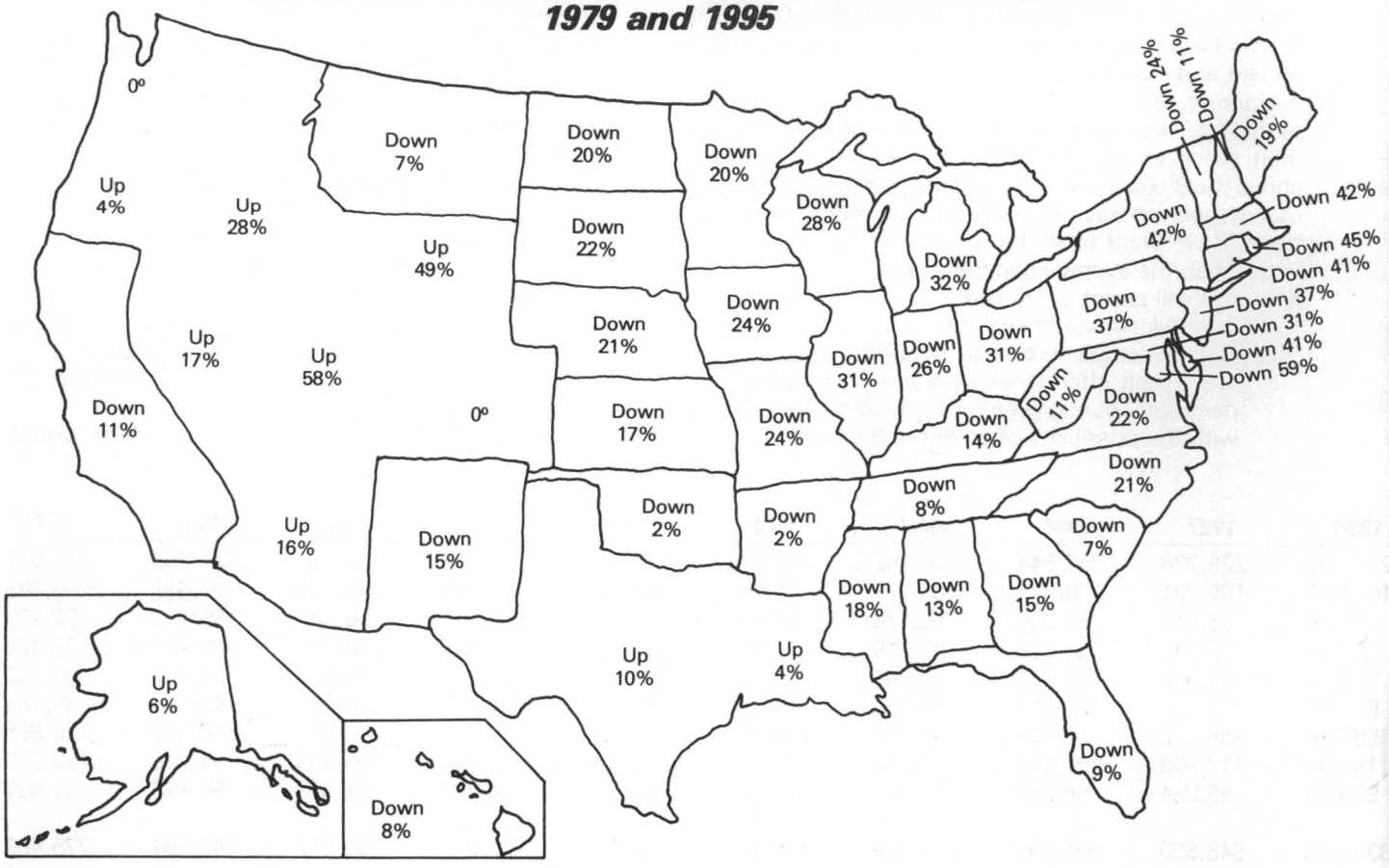
Middleton, L. Four Pennsylvania colleges lay off 89 tenured professors. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, September 17, 1979, *19* (5), 5.

Mitzman, B. Idaho debates closing a campus and dropping aid for sports. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 23, 1981, *22* (1), 8.

New budget cut hits Ohio campus. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, November 17, 1980, *21* (3), 2.

Changing Numbers in High-School Graduating Classes

Projections show decline in all but 10 states between 1979 and 1995



Increasing the Questioning Ability of Student Teachers

STUART P. VINCENT

Stuart P. Vincent is Associate Professor in Student Teaching, School of Education, Eastern Illinois University.

One of the most important skills of teaching is that of questioning. It is this skill that may not only determine the area in which our thinking is to be directed but also the level of inquiry and to what extent we will pursue a problem.

The importance of questioning skill has been recognized since the days of Socrates but somehow teachers have been expected to gain this technique through the trials and errors of experience.

Since this seems to be an area in which little direct instruction is currently being given, it is the purpose of this paper to suggest that we give more instruction in the area of *questioning and questioning techniques* and that a "taxonomy of questions" is a useful tool in doing so.

While doing some graduate research in this area, (Vincent, 1970) the author found some evidence that we can improve the questioning ability of student teachers.

The Research

The research was done to determine whether some direct instruction in the use of Sanders' Taxonomy of Questions (Sanders, 1966) would increase the kinds of classroom questions used by student teachers.

Sanders' Taxonomy of Questions is a sequential and cumulative method of classifying questions used in the classroom. The categories have unique elements, but when used together, form the taxonomy. These categories from the lowest level are: Memory, Translation, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation.

An experimental study using a Control Group and an Experimental Group (each group containing twenty-one student teachers) was used to test this null hypothesis:

> *No significant difference will exist between the kinds of classroom questions used by a group of student teachers who have had instruction in the use of Sanders' Taxonomy of Questions and a group of student teachers who have* not *had this instruction.*

An analysis of covariance was used to help determine the significance of the data and the hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level of significance indicating that instruction in the use of Sanders' Taxonomy does increase the kinds of questions used by student teachers.

The Results

The following items from this research seem to give us some direction:

1. Student teachers *can* be taught to increase the kinds of questions they use.
2. *Direct instruction in questioning techniques* should be a part of Teacher Education Curriculum.
3. A *taxonomy* (classification system) for questions is a useful tool.

Using the Results

Using some of this information, the writer has tried to increase the questioning ability of student teachers by giving some direct instruction in Sanders' Taxonomy, by emphasizing the importance of asking many different kinds of classroom questions, and by discussing certain questioning techniques such as:

1. *Getting more response out of our questions* by asking different class members to *verify* whether the answer given was correct or not. (This changes the interaction and increases the attention span of the students.)
2. *Helping students to give answers that are more in depth* by "not accepting the first raised hand", but by *pausing* and telling the students to think awhile before giving their answers or by having them give more thought to the question and accepting the answers at a later date.
3. There are to be *fewer classroom questions used* by the student teachers, but questions that are

more in depth (at a higher level of taxonomy).

4. Student teachers should make *every question a "good one"* by reinforcing with praise or restating the question to make the student feel that he has made an important contribution.

It is through learning a Taxonomy of Questions and by practicing specific questioning techniques (such as those mentioned or others that *you* have found to be effective) that student teachers will become aware of the importance of questions and the need to ask many different kinds.

References

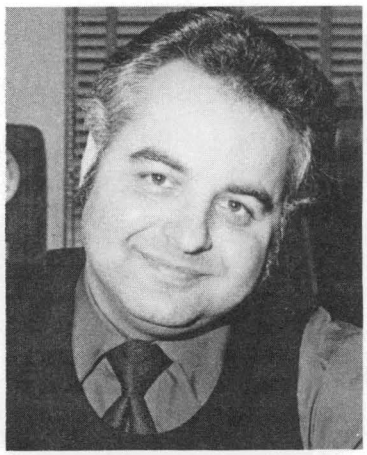
Sanders, N.M. *Classroom Questions What Kinds?* New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Vincent, S.P. *A research study in increasing the kinds of classroom questions used by student teachers.* Unpublished graduate study, University of Colorado, 1970.

VIEWPOINT . . .

The Need For Public Schools To Define Their Roles

James A. Wenstrom



James A. Wenstrom is Assistant Superintendent of Schools for the Gridley Community Unit School District, Gridley, Illinois.

There is no doubt that given the charge of our public school system in America, we have the finest educational vehicle that exists. However, the key to evaluating the worth or truthfulness of this statement is conceptualizing the purpose for which our educational system functions.

Public schools in America by definition and law exist to provide educational opportunities for all youngsters. To extinguish any tendency of the reader to immediately label the writer an elitist, let me quickly add that such an endeavor is indeed admirable and desirable. It is important, however, that society realize that the goal of educating all its members builds into the system certain fundamental characteristics and constraints that cannot always be addressed to everyone's satisfaction given the resources and organizational structure operative.

Let us get down to the most basic unit within which the student must learn, the classroom. Within the walls of the classroom are a mix of very different personalities representative of a myriad of abilities, interests, and experiential backgrounds. All of these factors give shape to a group of individuals with varied value systems, goals, and expectations relative to what schooling can and should do for them. Perhaps more importantly these children are derived from as varied a group of parents with just as diverse views and expectations of education.

The pendulum of charge, as all issues in the educational arena, swings broadly between socializing children to fit into society's mainstream and imparting a quality academically oriented fund of reasoning and conceptualizing skills. It can be successfully argued that these are not mutually exclusive goals. However, it must be recognized that at the extremes they may well be. Some children prove to be so frustrated and unable or unreceptive in the classroom setting that their very presence jeopardizes or even negates the learning opportunities of others. This is not to say these children do not have worth. Quite the contrary, they are every bit as important as other students. At the other extreme may be those very academically gifted students who are bored and unchallenged, destined never to reach their full potentials. The point is, the system more often than

not dictates that all must be served and have their needs met within the resources available. Too often the needs to which today's society demands schools address themselves have become so broad and diverse, the resources to deal with them successfully are not available within the schools. The end result is a waterfront approach leading to mediocrity in all endeavors.

The facts that children come from broken homes, are so varied in their values, are so diverse in behavior, abilities, and self-motivation, etc. are not valid excuses. They are true, yes! But they are "givens". We start from there in the public sector. That's the way it is! Perhaps it is time for public schools to retreat from the posture of a reactive organization blindly accepting the charges of society and to take an active role in defining and identifying those functions schools are capable of achieving and addressing.

Schools exist to educate, so let's define what that means. For too long every need that has come along has become part of the definition of the role of public education. I believe most parents would or should accept public education's primary goal to be equipping students with the academic and vocational skills to further pursue their full potentials as human beings. Schools need to define for the public what standards in these areas are appropriate, desirable, and attainable given the varied clientele. In addition, schools need the authority and support of society in setting contingencies which occur upon non-achievement attributable to disinterest and refusal to be motivated to application.

Student centered public educators in the K-12 spectrum should agree that the ideal is to afford all children the opportunity to develop their capabilities to the fullest. We must find a way to lead society back to the realization that we are talking about definable capabilities within the academic realms which may well lead to, facilitate, or even be facilitated by participation and achievement in athletics, music, or the arts. However, impartment of academic and, where applicable, basic vocational skills is the thrust of a K-12 public education. The objective is not that all children be academically "A" students. That is not a reasonable expectation, but rather that all students maximize their academic strengths and attain their full potentials.

The focal point of this discussion is that schools must take the initiative in honestly and openly defining for society what they can do and what they should be doing. For too long they have allowed themselves to be pulled into a posture of being all things to all peoples. It's time to openly declare what teachers are trained to do and what the total resources will allow to be done. Then if society wishes to place additional expectations upon the educational system, let us clearly define them, alter the organizational structure if necessary, retool the personnel to meet the needs of students to be addressed, and procure the resources necessary to deal with such expectations.

Educational Placement of the Retarded and Self-Concept Functioning: Implications for Education Decision Makers

RICHARD L. LUFTIG

Richard L. Luftig is Assistant Professor of Special Education in the Department of Educational Psychology, School of Education and Allied Professions, Miami University at Oxford, Ohio.

Recent legislation mandating least restrictive educational environments for handicapped students has resulted in substantial changes in the education provided for these pupils. For many handicapped pupils, least restrictive environment has resulted in mainstreamed placement with supplementary instruction provided in order to facilitate academic success (Owen, Blount, & Moscow, 1978). For other handicapped students, least restricted environment has resulted in special class placement. The decision on appropriate placement for exceptional students has often been difficult for educators serving on committees for the handicapped. Decisions by these committees have most often been predicated on academic ground with only tangential concern given to the child's affective functioning. Even in cases where educational committee members have been concerned with the effects of placement on affective development and have turned to the research literature, the literature has been non-conclusive or contradictory.

One problem in considering affective variables has been in defining, operationalizing, and measuring the constructs. Often, researchers have argued for the existence of a given construct without validating the variable, conducting correlations and factor analysis to ascertain its existence as an independent construct, and devising instruments for its assessment. One construct which has been at least partially isolated and factor analyzed, validated and checked for reliability, and measured by psychological instrumentation is that of

the measured self-concept. (Coopersmith, 1959; Felker, 1974; Purkey, 1970) In the last two decades a variety of reliable, valid measuring instruments has been constructed which purports to measure the child's general self-concept as well as his self-concept in school, home, and peer situations (e.g. Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Guttman Self-Report Scale, Tennessee Self-Concept Scale). Thus, it appears that the instrumentation exists in order to reliably measure the effects of different educational placements on the measured self-concept of handicapped students.

The mentally retarded pupil by reason of his/her record of school failure and intellectual deficiencies may be particularly susceptible to the deleterious effects of a diminished measured self-concept. (Mallenby, 1973, 1974) The critical relationship between schooling and self-concept for these pupils mandates that one criterion for choosing an appropriate educational placement be the effect of that placement on the student's measured self-concept.

Since educational decision makers are often faced with questions of appropriate placement for retarded learners, it would seem that a brief sampling of the relevant literature on the topic might be in order. However, in the investigation of most research questions conflicting results are often reported. The present paper attempts to classify a sample of the relevant work on this topic as to results reported and suggest additional variables which may contribute to these discrepant results. It is believed that knowledge of these additional variables will be of use to educators in their own difficult decisions regarding appropriate placement for mentally retarded learners.

The Self-Concept: A Construct of Experience

The self-concept has been defined as the overt expression of the sum total of how an individual views him/herself. (Felker, 1974; Tolor, Tolor, & Blumin, 1977) It has been suggested that the self-concept operates as a filter which interprets experience and as a driving force which partially determines new experiences. Thus, the self concept has been hypothesized as a "circular force" which influences both how experiences are interpreted and predicts the probability that new experiences will be attempted. It has also been suggested that the self-concept is an important mechanism in maintaining belief consistency and reducing cognitive dissonance. (Festinger, 1957; Lecky, 1951) Thus, the self-concept has been determined to be important in maintaining psychological equilibrium for the handicapped. (Felker, 1974)

The self-concept has been correlated with a variety of educational variables. For example the self-concept as measured by various "self-concept" inventories and scales has been shown to be positively correlated with academic achievement with elementary school children (Purkey, 1970; Wattenburg & Clifford, 1964), with intermediate and secondary school pupils (Shaw & Alves, 1963; Williams & Cole, 1968), with Black and Hispanic children (Borovetz, 1975; Caplin, 1969; Gorlow, Butler & Guthrie, 1963; Vasquez, 1974), with the mentally retarded (Myers, 1976; Toor, 1974), with the physically handicapped and sensory impaired (Bryan, 1974; Busby, Fillner, & Smittle, 1974; Kennedy & Bruininks, 1976; McMaker, 1976; Safferstone, 1977; Schwartz, Ross & Houchins, 1975), and with learning disabled children. (Seamen, 1974; Sheare, 1978) The measured self-concept has also been shown to be related to anxiety level (Coopersmith, 1959; Stanwyck & Felker, 1971), whether or not the student feels in control of his/her environment (locus of control) (Felker & Thomas, 1971; Messer, 1972), and perceived body build. (Meisnner & Thoreson, 1967; Richard & Emersons, 1970) Finally, the perceived self-concept has been shown to be related to developmental variables such as language development and usage. (Felker & Thomas, 1971; Felker & Stanwyck, 1971; Marston, 1965) The robustness of the relationship of the measured self-concept and schooling has led educators to become cognizant not only of the effects of schooling on cognitive functioning but also on affective development. (Rogers, 1974; Williams & Cole, 1968) Not all such correlations, however, have been positive. For example, Stanwyck (1972) reported results that indicated that as a group, elementary school children have difficulty maintaining positive self-concept. Stanwyck reported a steady downward trend in measured self-concept from grade 2 through grade 6 at which time self-concept rose slightly and/or leveled off. Furthermore, the gradient of decline was steeper for boys than for girls. Thus, it is possible that schooling may either increase or decrease measured self-concept of children depending on the adequacy of the educational environment. The influence of schooling on measured self-concept of retarded learners may even be more crucial.

Self-Concept and Special Class Placement: The Case For

In reviewing articles dealing with effects of class placement on measured self-concept of retarded pupils, articles were located by examining Psychological Abstracts, Exceptional Children Abstracts, and Mental Retardation Abstracts from 1969-1980 inclusive. Only those articles dealing with differential class placement of mentally retarded pupils into self-contained or mainstreamed settings were included. A review of all the articles revealed by the literature search would be prohibitive both in terms of space limitations and reader interest. Thus, articles discussed in this paper were chosen as to their representiveness to the question of class placement of self-concept.

The results of the experiments reviewed fell into two general categories. One class of studies found either no differences between special education placement and mainstreamed setting or reported a significant positive effect for special education placement. The second class of experiments reported a significant advantage

for mainstreamed settings on self-concept functioning of retarded students. The results favoring special class placements will be discussed first.

Much of the impetus toward a mainstreamed model of education has been the result of the belief that labeling or categorizing of the special education student is deleterious to the child's education. In a longitudinal study over a two year period, Schurr, Towne, & Joiner (1972) accepted this position and further hypothesized that reaching conclusions to oneself either publicly or privately about ability to achieve would set limits for the child as to the school experiences to be attempted. Thus, according to the authors, categorizing or labeling a child as "retarded" and placing him/her in a self-contained class for the retarded would interfere with the development of a positive measured self-concept.

Schurr et al. (1972) tested 62 EMR children on a self-concept inventory upon special class placement, four additional times during the school year and twice more the following school year. Contrary to predictions, Schurr et. al. did not find a decrease in measured self-concept. Rather, self-concept increased the first year and continued to climb through the second year. From these results, Schurr et al. concluded that special class placement contained facilitative effects on EMR students' measured self-concept functioning.

Gerke (1975) investigated special class placement and regular class placement with supplementary resource room remediation on the self-concept of 61 EMR children. Gerke found no significant differences between the two placement groups either on self-concept or reading achievement. From these findings, Gerke concluded that placement did not make a significant difference on the self-concept functioning of EMR pupils.

Lessa (1976) investigated the same school placements as Gerke (1975) with 90 EMR children, and found a distinct advantage for the special class group on school related self-concept but not on general (global) self-concept. Similar results indicating either advantages for the special class placement or no differences between the placements were reported by Boersma et al. (1979), Bradley (1974), and Rouse (1974).

Finally, Carvojal (1972) investigated the predictive value of placement on measured self-concept using a multiple regression procedure. Carvojal used ten predictor variables (sex, IQ, parental employment status, parental education, SES, number of siblings in special education programs, teacher preparation, home status, curriculum, and educational setting) to predict the measured self-concept of EMR pupils. The results indicated that three variables (IQ, SES, and parental education) were significant predictors of self-concept. However, teacher preparation, curriculum, and educational setting were of no predictive use. From these findings, Carvojal concluded that educational setting was not a significant variable in self-concept maintenance of EMR adolescents.

Self-Concept and Special Class Placement: The Case Against

The literature reviewed thus far indicates either no significant differences between educational placements or a significant main effect favoring special class placement. However, there is also research which indicates that mainstreaming may be facilitative to self-concept functioning in retarded students. Calhoun and Elliot (1977), for example, investigated self-concept functioning and academic achievement in EMR pupils over a three year period in a special class and mainstreamed environment. Students in both settings were administered the Piers-Harris and the Stanford Achievement test every September and June for the three years. The results indicated a more positive self-concept and higher academic achievement for the EMR pupils in the regular classrooms. From their results, the authors concluded that the trend toward mainstreaming was supportive on both academic and affective grounds.

Kendall (1977) administered the Illinois Index of Self Derogation and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills to 90 EMR pupils divided evenly into mainstreamed and special education classes. Kendall found an interaction between placement and reading ability on measured self-concept functioning in that EMR children with relatively strong reading skills did better in mainstreamed settings than EMR pupils with poor reading skills. Kendall interpreted these findings to be in partial support of the mainstreaming model.

Finally, Mickley (1977) examined the effects on self-concept, academic achievement, and teacher perception of self-concept when EMR, emotionally disturbed, and learning disabled children were placed together in the same classrooms as opposed to when they were placed in separate classrooms by handicapping condition. Subjects were pretested and posttested on the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory and the Wide Range Achievement Test. A two way analysis of variance was conducted with type of exceptionality and educational placement as independent variables.

Mickley reported that educational placement was not a significant variable when covaried with type of exceptionality, academic achievement, or defensive behavior on the part of the children. Mickley concluded that the three types of students could be placed in the same classroom without adversely affecting either academic achievement or self-concept development and that in some cases, non-categorical placement actually enhanced self-concept. While different than the other studies reported in that handicapped students were not mainstreamed with normal children, Mickley's findings nevertheless are interesting in that they support non-categorical and non-labeled placement of exceptional pupils.

Conclusions

What conclusions can be drawn regarding the effects of educational placement on the measured self-concept

of mentally retarded pupils? At first, the results appear to be inconclusive with some studies indicating advantages in special class placement while others support a mainstreamed environment. On further inspection, however, there may be some factors which could help to explain these discrepant results and may be of use to educational committees in making placement decisions for retarded learners.

One possible factor to take into consideration is that of I.Q. Meyers (1976), for example, investigated groups of "high" IQ EMR pupils (65-80) and "low" IQ EMR pupils (49-64) in a special class and mainstreamed setting. Meyers found that for low IQ EMR students, the special class placement was most facilitative of measured self-concept functioning but that for high IQ EMR students, placement was not significant. Meyers hypothesized that the high IQ EMR pupils in the regular classes were able to learn more incidental materials and benefit from nonretarded peers than low IQ EMR students. Conversely, Meyers posited that the low IQ students were not adept in learning incidentally (see Denny, 1966; Zeaman & House, 1963) and required the individualized and intentional instruction provided in the special education class. Finally, Meyers hypothesized that high IQ EMR students were more accepting of their handicapping condition than low IQ EMR students. This hypothesis was partially supported by Mallenby (1974) who found that mildly retarded girls were more accepting of their subnormality than mildly retarded boys, but that moderately retarded boys were more accepting than moderately retarded girls. A study which covaried IQ level and sex, on self-concept would appear to be needed to further illuminate this relationship.

Another significant variable affecting self-concept and educational placement is reading achievement. As Kendall (1977) has demonstrated, children with high reading skills maintain their self-concept in mainstreamed classes whereas children with poorer reading skills maintain higher self-concept in self contained classes. One reason for this covariation of reading achievement with self-concept and educational placement may have to do with teacher acceptance and reinforcement. Richmond and Dalton (1973) have concluded that for the EMR child to maintain a positive self-concept, it is crucial that he be viewed as academically successful by the teacher. In the mainstreamed classroom, it may be that success is judged primarily by the teacher on the basis of the child's reading achievement and verbal skills. On the other hand, the special education teacher may consider other indices, both academic and social, in an individualized, criterion referenced judgment of student success. This would tend to help maintain self-concept in poor reading EMR pupils. Thus, poorer readers would do better in an academic atmosphere where success was not intimately entwined with the ability to read and handle verbal materials and where interstudent normative comparisons were not being made.

Finally, the possibility has been raised that the self-concept functioning of a retarded child in a mainstreamed environment is partially dependent upon whether the child is the only handicapped individual in the class or whether there are other handicapped pupils with whom to form sub-comparison groups. (Boersma, 1979; Brookover, Erickson, & Joiner, 1967; Festinger, 1954; Smith, Dokecki, & David, 1977; Strang, Smith, & Rogers, 1978) For example, Strang et al. found that the self-concepts of retarded pupils were higher when the students were placed with other learners who were also experiencing learning difficulties. Likewise, Smith et al. found that when students were forced to compare themselves with the entire mainstreamed class, self-concept suffered. However, when the children were able to compare themselves favorably to a sub-comparison group, a positive self-concept was maintained. Thus, the axiom "strength in numbers" may also be a truism for self-concept maintenance of retarded students.

Summary

The movement toward least restrictive environment has meant sweeping changes in the education of mentally handicapped children. Much has been argued about the pros and cons of mainstreaming and its effects on academic achievement. Much less has been discussed concerning the self-concept of children who are placed in mainstreamed classes. A child, however, is more than an achievement test score. Rather, he/she is a whole individual, developing in affective as well as in cognitive areas. As more is learned about the effect on the measured self-concept on cognitive and academic functioning, educators will need to become increasingly attuned to differences in the child's self-concept development as a function of educational placement. Mainstreaming may not be for all mentally handicapped children. To place a child in an educational environment in which he/she cannot maintain feelings of self-worth may actually increase rather than decrease the restrictiveness in the school environment.

References

Boersma, F.J., Chapman, J.W., & Battle, J. Academic self-concept in special education students: Some suggestions for interpreting self-concept scores. *Journal of Special Education*, 1979, *13*, 433-442.

Bradley, L.E. *A comparison of self-concept, academic achievement, attitude toward school, and adaptive behavior of elementary school children identified as EMR in four different school environments*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1974.

Brookover, W.B., Erickson, E.L., & Joiner, L.M. *Self-concept of ability and school achievement III: Relationship of self-concept to achievement in high school.* U.S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project 2831, E. Lansing, Michigan: Office of Research and Publications, Michigan State University, 1967.

Burke, D.A. *Comparative effects of placement in self-contained or partially mainstreamed programs on the self-concept attendance and academic achievement of EMR high school students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1979.

Calhoun, G. & Elliot, N. Self concept and academic achievement of educable mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed pupils. *Exceptional children*, 1977, *43*, 379-380.

Carvojal, A.L. Predictions of four criteria of self concept in EMR adolescents. *Exceptional Children*, 1972, *39*, 239.

Denny, M.R. A theoretical analysis and its application to training the mentally retarded. In N.E. Ellis (Ed.),*-International review of mental retardation* (Vol. 2). New York: Academic Press, 1966.

Diggory, J.C. *Self-evaluation: Concepts and Studies*. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Dion, K.L. & Miller, N. Determinants of task-related self evaluations in black children. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 1973, *9*, 466-479.

Festinger, L.A. A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations,* 1954, *7*, 117-140.

Felker, D.W. *Building positive self-concepts.* Minneapolis: Burgess, 1974.

Friend, R.M. & Neale, J.M. Children's perceptions of success and failure: An attributional analysis of the effects of race and social class. *Developmental Psychology*, 1972, *7*, 124-128.

Gerke, R.W. *The effects of mainstreaming on the self concept and reading achievement of exceptional children at the elementary level.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lehigh University, 1975.

Kendall, W.S. *Reading achievement and self concept of educable retarded boys in three educational settings.* Paper presented at the 55th Annual International Convention, The Council for Exceptional Children, Atlanta, 1977.

Kifer, E. Relationships between academic achievement and personality characteritstics: A quasi-longitudinal study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 1975,m *12*, 191-210.

Lessa, F.J. *General self esteem and school related self esteem of boys mainstreamed in segregated and integrated special education placements.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1976.

Mallenby, T.W. A Note on perceived self acceptance of institutionalized mentally retarded children. *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 1973, *123*, 171-172.

Mallenby, T.W. Personal space: Projective and direct measures with institutionalized mentally retarded adults. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 1974, *38*, 28-31.

McIntire, W.G. & Drummond, R.J. Stability of self concept in field-dependent and field-independent children. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 1076, *42*, 1279-1282.

Meyers, J.K. *The special day school placement of high IQ and low IQ EMR pupils.* Paper presented at the 54th Annual International Convention, Council of Exceptional Children, Chicago, 1976.

Mickely, J.A. *Comparative study of categorical and non-categorical special education classes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lehigh University, 1977.

Owen, S.U., Blount, H.P., & Moscow, H. *Educational Psychology,* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1978.

Purkey, W.W. *Self concept and school achievement.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Richmond, B.O. & Dalton, J.L. Teacher ratings and self concept reports of retarded pupils. *Exceptional Children*, 1973, *40*, 178-183.

Rouse, B.G. *A comparison of intellectual functioning, academic achievement, and self-concept of mentally handicapped children in three types of classroom settings.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Mississippi State University, 1974.

Strang, L., Smith, M.D., & Rogers, C.M. Social comparison, multiple reference groups, and the self-concept of academically handicapped children before and after mainstreaming. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1978, *70*, 487-497.

Stanwyck, D.J. *Self concept development: A longitudinal study.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1972.

Schurr, J.T., Towne, R.C., & Joiner, L.M. Trends in self concept of ability over two years of special class placement. *Journal of Special Education*, 1972, *6*, 161-166.

Shiffler, N., Lynch-Sauer, J., & Nadelman, L. Relationships between self concept and classroom behavior in two informal elementary classrooms. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1977, *69*, 349-359.

Smith, M.S., Dokecki, P.R., & Davis, E.E. School related factors influencing the self concept of children with learning problems. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 1977, *54*, 185-195.

Tolor, A., Tolor, B., & Blumin, S. Self concept and locus of control in primary grade children identified as requiring special educational programming. *Psychological Reports,* 1977, *40,* 43-49.

Williams, R.L. & Cole, S. Self concept and school adjustment. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1968, *46*, 478-481.

Wylie, R.C. *The self concept: a critical survey of pertinent research literature.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961.

Zeaman, D. & House, B.J. The role of attention in retardate discrimination learning. In H.R. Ellis (Ed.), *Handbook of mental deficiency.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.

EIU Senior Wins Award

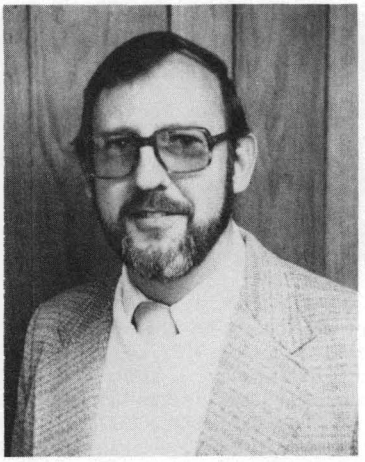
Jayne Ann Augustine, a senior major in the EIU Department of Physical Education, was recently awarded the Worthy Student Grant-In-Aid in the amount of $1500 by the Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, Lambda State Organization. The Society is an educational, honorary, professional organization of over 140,000 women educators throughout the world. The organizaton is dedicated to promoting women educators to positions of leadership. Illinois, Lambda State, is made up of over 6,000 key women teachers who are striving to improve Illinois schools and communities. Dr. Emma Reinhardt, former EIU education teacher and Dean, was one of the fourteen women who founded the State organization in 1935. Ms. Augustine was selected from a highly competitive field of nominees by a Delta Kappa Gamma selection committee working in cooperation with the EIU Center for Educational Services. She was chosen on the bases of scholarship, commitment to graduate study and the profession of education, and potential for leadership in the field.

Administrators' Round Table

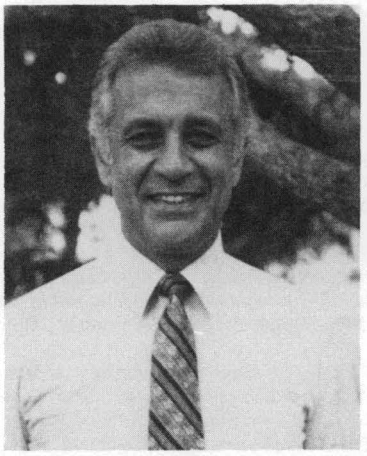
This year, the Educational Administration staff of EIU is sponsoring four meetings of the "Administrators' Round Table." This organization, served by Dr. G.C. Matzner as its secretary-treasurer, is composed of school administrators in the Eastern Illinois service region. It holds regular meetings each year for the purpose of discussing current issues, problems, and trends in educational administration. Three "Round Tables" are scheduled for the Spring Semester, 1982; they will be held in the Buzzard Education Building Auditorium. EIU graduate students in Educational Administration are invited to participate in these meetings at no cost. Dates and times for the spring meetings are: January 20, 10 a.m.; March 17, 10 a.m.; and April 21, 3:30 p.m.

The Status of Competency Testing in America

WILBERT HERRMANN
ROBERT GERARDI
GARY BENEDICT



Wilbert Herrmann is the Vocational Career Education Coordinator for the Mukwonago Area Schools, Mukwonago, Wisconsin.



Robert J. Gerardi is the Superintendent of Schools for the Mukwonago Area Schools, Mukwonago, Wisconsin.

Gary C. Benedict is Director of Curriculum and Instruction for the Mukwonago Area Schools, Mukwonago, Wisconsin.

Minimum competency testing is an emerging trend that provokes concern. In school systems all over the country, parents and public officials are unhappy with the quality of education. They are expressing their discontent by demanding a new emphasis on basic skills and the imposition of minimal competency tests for promotion and high school graduation. In the tenth Gallup Poll of public attitudes toward education, taken in the fall of 1978, sixty-eight percent of the respondents said they favored promotions from grade to grade only if

children could pass an examination. (Thompson, M, 1979)

While lawmakers are writing laws, educators are engaged in a debate as to what minimal competency testing is, what it should be, and how to use it to improve the overall quality of education.

Educators agree it is possible to test basic skills, life skills, school subjects, or the application of basic skills in school or life. Competencies can be measured by actual performance beyond school, simulated performance, school projects, and paper and pencil tests.

While "back to basics" advocates stress the importance of reading, writing, and arithmetic, turning out students who have the necessary survival skills to function in our society is the primary goal of others.

There are others who point out the inherent drawbacks of mandated competency based testing whether it covers basic or survival skills. The danger that minimum standards will become maximum standards, the problem of making concessions for handicapped, special education, or culturally deprived students, the dehumanizing nature of standardized tests with a built-in-fail factor, the compulsion of educators to teach to the test to avoid the embarrassment of a high failure rate, the question of what to do with incompetent students, deciding who will determine what competencies to measure and how will they be validated, and the concern by educators that the real object of the movement is not so much to test the competence of the children as to test the competence of the schools have all been cited as problems and concerns of the competency testing movement.

Generally, four groups seem to be responsible for creating the widespread interest in the competency testing approach. *Parents* feel their children may pass through the current educational system without acquiring essential skills. *Taxpayers* wonder why test scores are lower when enrollments are declining and schooling costs rising. *Employers* are troubled by the fact that many high school graduates do not have adequate reading, writing, speaking and computational skills. *University officials* are alarmed by the increasing need to provide remedial courses for entering freshmen. It is noteworthy that the initiative for competency legislation has not come from the public educational community.

With all fifty states having some state board of education or legislative activity in the area of competency testing, with Congress holding hearings on whether there should be a nationwide competency exam and educators speaking out against the movement, competency testing promises to continue as one of the hottest education topics of discussion. The *New York Times* recently called the minimal competency movement "the fastest growing trend in American elementary and secondary education". (Mitzman, 1978)

In October, 1977, 700 delegates meeting at Phi Delta Kappa's Thirty-Sixth Biennial Council indicated that the most pressing issue facing education was:

> *What basic skills and competencies should all youth acquire and how might competency-based examinations contribute to their acquisition?* ("PDK delegates", 1977)

Perhaps at no time in the history of American education have we ever had an idea adopted so quickly by so many states — an idea supported, generally, by non-educators and opposed by educators.

Minimum competency testing and competency-based education are separate concepts and programs — they do not mean the same thing or necessarily go together. Our present system of education is based upon time and texts as opposed to competencies and goals; and the standards on which we have based student credits, promotions, and graduation have been a mixture of vague or varied expectations. Understanding this, what some call competency based education today falls far short of what the concept means and implies. The current implications of the competency movement propose to challenge the instructional system for failing to produce desired outcomes and for granting credit to students based upon vague criteria or marginal performance. Programs are considered "competency based" when the development of the curriculum is based upon performance goals or competencies and the assessment, instruction, and promotion of students are built around and guided by those goals or competencies. *Competency based education* (CBE) refers to the objectives or performance competencies of the program and competency testing refers to the assessment of those competencies. One might make the comparison that conventional school programs are based upon time and driven by assignment while CBE programs are based upon behavioral goals and driven by assessment.

One of the real problems of the whole competency movement is the definition of the term. What passes for competence differs sharply from one school system to another. Consider the following:

- In Denver, schools focus competency tests on basics — reading, writing, spelling, and math. (Thompson, M., 1979)
- In Chicago, students won't get out of the eighth grade until they master 80% of the key objectives in the language arts curriculum. (Thompson, M., 1979)
- In Oregon's Lincoln County, schools list 243 minimum skills, including some like this: "Form . . . hypotheses about urban locations and growth, patterns of land use, urban socio-economic characteristics, urban size and spacing, the use theories to account for settlement and land-use patterns" (Nance, 1977)
- In Massachusetts, schools must test for competency at least three times in the child's K-12 experience and secondary students must be tested on language arts, math, writing, and speaking and listening skills. It is the responsibility of the LEA to determine its standards of competency, subject to the approval of the SEA.
- In Nebraska, the competency test includes an oral presentation by the student to his teacher, advisor, and a minimum of two peers. (Findley, 1978)
- In Maryland, attention is given to the following five skills: Basic Skills, World of Work, World of

Leisure Time, Citizenship, and Survival Skills. (Hornbeck, 1977)

- Until recently, Albany High School in Albany tested all seniors on their ability to tell time, take a shower, use a telephone and make a peanut butter sandwich. "Some students were insulted, and some parents were outraged," says Mae Yih, a legislator and member of the Albany School Board. (Mitzman, 1978) The requirements were changed after parents protested.

Some critics suggest schools delude themselves by trying to identify what skills are required to function competently. "Can anybody indeed identify what skills are required to be a truck driver or engineer?" says Gene Glass, (1978) director of the Laboratory of Educational Research at the University of Colorado, Boulder.

The State of Wisconsin Superintendent's Blue Ribbon Commission recently defined competency education as:

An educational program that includes organized learning activities and requires each pupil to master selected learning objectives at specified levels of achievement. (Thompson, B., 1978)

At the other end of the spectrum from this general definition is one from the State of Oregon which defines competence as:

An application of a skill, knowledge, or understanding which is necessary to function in a real life setting. (Hornbeck, 1977)

From the perspective of the Wisconsin Association of School District Administrators, (1978) competency based education should be defined as:

That education which results in the attainment of clearly stated, measurable learning objectives which will enable the student to function successfully in both school and life situations.

Archie Buchmiller (1979) of the Division for Management Planning and Federal Assistance at the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (DPI) describes competency education as:

An educational process which is based on clearly identified or prescribed behaviors and outcomes using designed instructional packages directed to these outcomes; embraces variable approaches and flexible time frames; emphasizes problem-solving approaches which make measurement and assessment the handmaiden of instruction; certifies possession of standards-based competence for promotion and graduation; provides remediation for those who fail; and provides data and information by which officials make systems changes and reforms with the potential to increase student and school performance. This concept of CBE identifies it for what it must be — an instructional management system.

William G. Spady (1977) of the National Institute of Education defines competency based education as:

A data based, adaptive, performance-oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify within the context of flexible time parameters the demonstration of known explicitly stated, and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles. (Spady, 1977)

The American Friends Service Public Education Committee (1978) has written that:

Minimum competency programs are organized efforts to make sure public school students are able to demonstrate their mastery of certain minimum skills needed to perform tasks they routinely confront in adult life.

According to Tom Stefanek, Director of the Bureau for Educational Planning, Evaluation, Information and Research of the Wisconsin (DPI):

Competency based education is an instructional philosophy and process which includes the identification of desired pupil learning outcomes, the implementation of learning activities designed to meet those outcomes, the regular progress in attaining desired competencies, and the provision of remedial assistance to students as needed to assure the highest possible level of attainment regarding the specified outcomes. (Chambers, 1978)

Within the framework of competency based education, competency is a poorly defined word. Some states have mandated that competency is to be indicated by proficiency in one or more of the basic skill areas; some define competency as: proficiency in the application skills necessary to function in adulthood, and others have defined competency in terms of life roles. By definition a competency describes a minimum level of performance. The competencies required for graduation for example, describe the minimum level of expectations which a student must perform to be worthy of a high school diploma. The CBE programs which have received the most attention to date are those relating to graduation from a secondary school. A district becoming involved in CBE must choose the definition which best fits its philosophy, purposes, or aims.

Of the fifty states, thirty-eight have legislation or Department of Public Instruction mandates to identify the minimum basic life skills that students should attain during elementary and secondary school.

The diversity of actions is great. Some states are developing state standards, but they leave control to the local district at this time. Missouri has developed a test to be administered to all eighth grade students. No action is called for based upon the results. Idaho has a state test for graduation which may or may not be administered as a local option. Those students which pass the test in schools choosing the option, will receive a state seal on their diplomas.

A few states have provided the local district with the option of developing a competency test. In Colorado, a district that decides to develop a competency test must follow certain procedures. California requires districts to establish standards of proficiency in the basic skills areas, including reading, writing, and computation. By 1981, Virginia will require competency in skills which qualify the student for further education or employment.

While competency testing is being mandated in some states, other states are taking a wait and see approach or have rejected the approach completely. According to Gordon Cawelti, (1977), Executive Director of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the original state level action regarding competency testing was taken in Oregon. He suggests that this seems to be one of the more soundly conceived plans in that it allows much latitude for local determination of the competencies within a prescribed area. Oregon has essentially determined what it calls adult "survival skills" whereas the other states are primarily concerned with a limited number of basic skills.

In general, the movement toward state-mandated programs for minimum competency testing has slowed down since 1978. Only six states have taken some form of action since January, 1978 to the present. (Pipho, 1979) However, it appears that state programs are becoming more complex as the implementation process moves through a variety of stages. While the debate over the need for minimum competency testing programs appears to have subsided, differing points of view have surfaced in application. Many people feel that the process must reflect an educational concern. Others, particularly legislators and state board members sometimes feel that the intent of statewide mandates is being circumvented by inappropriate implementation procedures. Educators, on the other hand, point out the complexity of these testing programs along with potential for court cases and ask that certain changes be made.

The Education Commission of the States (ECS), under a grant from the National Institute for Education is attempting to gather better information on minimum competency testing for implementation activity.

In June, of 1978, ECS adopted a policy on minimum competency standards and testing. In summary, this recommendation reads as follows:

ECS supports state efforts to improve educational achievement and to increase the educational attainment of underachieving students to levels that will enable them to participate effectively in society, including obtaining and retaining a job. Setting standards for graduation, grade-to-grade promotion or placement in programs and specifying methods for determining when those standards have been met are common practices in education. Some standards are set by the state, some by the local school district or school. Teacher-made tests, department-wide examinations, standardized tests, minimum competency tests, teacher judgement, demonstration of mastery by student performance are some of the methods used to determine when pupils have met the standards. Use of minimum standards and minimum competency tests to determine when the standards have been met is one option. There is not, however, a body of knowledge or research data to support a conclusion that this method is better than others. Therefore, ECS advocates that states and local districts adopt a comprehensive plan for setting standards and establishing criteria for determining when those standards have been met. Such a plan should avoid the selection of standards that are too narrow and the reliance on a single assessment technique. (Pipho, 1979)

As one views the national picture there is considerable legislative pressure being applied by the proponents of CBE.

Basically, the current legislation is aimed at providing some sort of test, either at the state or local level, passage of which will ensure that a student has mastered specific basic skills. The number and kinds of skills varies from state to state and to the grade levels at which testing is required.

At the federal level some members of congress have called for nationwide testing. However, administration officials strongly believe that education is essentially a state and local function and that it would be an unwise expansion of federal influence to establish a national testing program. However, Congress did include in the renewed Elementary and Secondary Education Act an authorization for the U.S. Commissioner of Education to make grants to states or local school systems if they desire to develop educational proficiency standards. A state may apply for a grant or local school systems may apply in states where the state does not submit an application. One of the requirements of the law is that assurances must be made that any students failing any examinations under the plan must be provided additional instruction in the subject area failed.

References

American Friends Corporation. *A citizen's introduction to minimum competencies programs for students*. April 1978.

Buchmiller, A. *Competency based education issues and implications*. Madison Wis.: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 8284, January 1979.

Cawelti, G. Requiring competencies for graduation — some circular issue. *Educational Leadership*, November 1977, p. 89.

Chambers, D. *Report on the conference of competency based mathematics education*. Madison Wis.: Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 9391, January 1978.

Competency based education. Unpublished position paper of the Wisconsin Association of School District Administrators, Madison, Wis., January 1978.

Findley, J. West side minimum competency graduation requirements — a program that works. *Phi Delta Kappan*, May 1978, *59* (9), 616.

Glass, G. Minimum competence and incompetence in Florida. *Phi Delta Kappan*, May 1978, *59* (9), 604.

Hornbeck, D. Maryland's project basic. *Educational Leadership*, November 1977, *35*, 98-101.

Mitzman, B. Is minimum competency flunking its test? *Learning*, November 1978, pp. 88-100.

Nance, W.R. How fares competency development in Oregon? *Educational Leadership*, November 1977, *35*, 102.

PDK delegates identify most urgent educational issues. *Phi Delta Kappan*, December 1977, *59* (4), 287.

Pipho, C. *Update VIII: Minimum competency testing report*. Denver: Commission of the States, July 1979, *124*, 1-2.

Thompson, B. *State superintendent's policy on competency based education*. Unpublished position paper of the Wisconsin Association of School District Administrators, Madison, Wis., January 9, 1978.

Thompson, M. Because schools are burying social promotion, kids must perform to pass. *American School Board Journal*, January 1979, *166*, 30-32.

Spady, W.G. Competency based education, a bandwagon in search of definition. *Educational Researcher*, January 1977, *6*, 21.

Printed by the authority of the State of Illinois
11-5-81, 1050 copies, E1115


EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
1895
1899-1921-1947-1957